



THE ASIAN ESP JOURNAL

# The Asian ESP Journal

September 2018  
Volume 14, Issue 4



Chief Editor - Roger Nunn



Published by ELE Publishing  
(Division of the TESOL Asia Group)

TESOL Asia Group is wholly owned by SITE SKILL TRAINING Pty Ltd (Australia)

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying or otherwise, without the prior written permission of ELE Publishing or the Chief Editor of Asian ESP.

**No unauthorized photocopying**

Publisher: ELE Publishing

Managing Editor of ELE Publishing: Dr. John Adamson

Chief Editor of the Asian ESP Journal: Professor Roger Nunn

Associate Production Editor: Ramon Medriano, Jr.

Production Editor: Eva Guzman

ISSN. 2206-0979



## Table of Contents

<b>1. Ramon Medriano, Jr.....</b>	<b>05 - 07</b>
<i>Foreword</i>	
<b>2. Chin Min Lin .....</b>	<b>08 - 30</b>
<i>Asian Students' Reading Models</i>	
<b>3. Maria Arina Luardini, Merilyn Simbolon.....</b>	<b>31 - 41</b>
<i>Ecolinguistics for Teaching English</i>	
<b>4. Masruddin .....</b>	<b>42 - 46</b>
<i>Designing Appropriate English Learning Materials for Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking Study Program Students at IAIN Palopo</i>	
<b>5. Mayang Pipit .....</b>	<b>47 - 53</b>
<i>Musical CLIL as an Alternative Approach for Designing English Course Syllabus in Indonesia</i>	
<b>6. Mohammad Reza Kooroghli, Samad Sajjadi, Forough Rahimi .....</b>	<b>54 - 61</b>
<i>Effect of Medical English on Students' General English Proficiency</i>	
<b>7. Patoomporn Chairat .....</b>	<b>62 - 66</b>
<i>The Potential Benefits of Internet-Based Learning in Thai EFL Context</i>	
<b>8. Sulistia Indah.....</b>	<b>67 - 81</b>
<i>The Effect of Asset Based Thinking (ABT) Method on the Students' Speaking Ability in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom: A Study of Biology Students at STKIP Bima</i>	
<b>9. Sunarlia Limbong .....</b>	<b>82 - 92</b>
<i>Using Marlins English for Seafarers to Improve Listening Comprehension</i>	

<b>10. Truc Giang Huynh, Vu Mai Yen Tran.....</b>	<b>93 - 111</b>
<i>Using Intensive Technology in Teaching English for Environmental Engineering: A case study at Danang University of Science and Technology, The University of Danang, Vietnam</i>	
<b>11. Haruko Miyakoda.....</b>	<b>112 - 119</b>
<i>Enhancing Pronunciation Acquirement Based on Visual-Auditory System</i>	
<b>12. Claire Agana- Madrazo.....</b>	<b>120 - 143</b>
<i>Test Anxiety and Writing Proficiency of College Students in Western Mindanao</i>	
<b>13. Shuiling Chen .....</b>	<b>144 - 161</b>
<i>An Empirical Study of Scaffolding Instruction in ESP Teaching</i>	



## Foreword

### Language Skills Proficiency in ESP

**Ramon Medriano, Jr.**

*TESOL Asia*

In ESP, content (words) and context (meaning) play an important role yet we can not deny the fact that language skills play a vital role in ESP communication. In this issue of AESP (Volume 14, Issue 4), we will read different ways on how to develop these skills in the area of ESP.

*Chin Min Lin's Asian Students' Reading Models* compared the reading outcomes of EFL and CFL students based on the intervention of language learning strategies, multiple intelligences and motivation. CFL students were affected by motivation while EFL students were affected by strategies used in providing reading comprehension activities.

In *Ecolinguistics for Teaching English*, Maria Arina Luardini and Merilyn Simbolon examined the used of locally contextualized instructional materials through the use of ecolinguistics to teach English. Ecolinguistics is used to promote local subject content to instill culture to students while learning a target language.

The central concept of ESP is that it provides students with linguistic items that they will need when they work in a particular profession. Masruddin said in his research, *Designing Appropriate English Learning Materials for Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking Study Program Students at IAIN Palopo*, English materials given to students are still general in content therefore he conducted a needs analysis and had used the ADDIE model to produce an instructional material in economics and banking studies.

Mayang Pipit in her study *CLIL as an Alternative Approach for Designing English Course Syllabus in Indonesia* proposed the use of CLIL in designing a syllabus for Mathematics teachers to help them deliver the subject better in English. As a non-English subject is provided

using the English language, students will be exposed more to the language therefore providing them more opportunities to speak in English.

Another study in the intervention of ESP lessons to develop linguistic competence is the research, *Effect of Medical English on Students' General English Proficiency*. Mohammad Reza Kooroghli, Samad Sajjadi and Forough Rahimi conducted a longitudinal study in the use of medical English course to hone the linguistic competence of medical students and it was found that there is a significant improvement in their medical and general English knowledge.

INCEVA FB Marketing Company in Thailand noted that there are 30 million active users of FB per month and out of this number, 19.8 million people are online everyday. With this in mind, Patoomporn Chairat in her study *The Potential Benefits of Internet-Based Learning in Thai EFL Context* used the power of Facebook in providing an Internet-based learning platform to undergraduate students. This program can compensate the limited time of formal classroom learning yet teachers' still need to consider the level of autonomy the students have.

In *The Effect of Asset Based Thinking (ABT) Method on the Students' Speaking Ability in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom: A Study of Biology Students at STKIP Bima*, Sulistia Indah came up with a way on how to motivate students to learn and at the same time a way on how to improve their English speaking skills, through the integration of ABT in CLT.

Some students may find difficulty in understanding English conversations because of their listening skills. It is important to apply an appropriate teaching method in improving listening comprehension as what Sunarlia Limbong in her study, *Using Marlins English For Seafarers to Improve Listening Comprehension* explained. She explored the use of CALL in developing listening comprehension skills of students through the use of Marlins English for Seafarers.

To engage students in learning English in the classroom, Truc Giang Huynh and Vu Mai Yen Tran in their study, *Using Intensive Technology in Teaching English for Environmental Engineering: A case study at Danang University of Science and Technology, The University of Danang, Vietnam* examined the many benefits of integrating technology in the classroom. It was found that students became more participative, motivated and that it boosted retention of information.

*Haruko Miyakoda* in *Enhancing Pronunciation Acquirement Based on Visual-Auditory System* developed a system to enhance production of segmental features of a language especially for the use of people suffering from dyslexia.

*Shuiling Chen* in her article, *An Empirical Study of Scaffolding Instruction in ESP Teaching* pointed out that in teaching ESP and EGP, some teachers are still using the traditional way of providing lessons by monopolizing all the class discussions and activities and students complain because they graduate without acquiring real-life communication techniques. Chen further noted that the use of scaffolding in classrooms will answer the need for more exploratory discussions integrated with authentic materials.



## **Asian Students' Reading Models**

**Chin Min Lin**

台灣, *Taiwan*

### **Abstract**

This study probed into the relations of the multiple intelligences, learning strategy use, and motivation as well as their effects on reading comprehension outcomes for CSL and EFL learners. SEM models were built based on the data collected. The subjects were 285 international students studying in Taiwan and 295 local students learning English as a foreign language. Analyzing the positive factors that influenced their reading scores in the CSL model, the researchers discovered that motivation was the most important factor affecting their reading scores followed by strategy use. In contrast, strategy use was the most crucial factor that positively influenced their reading scores in the EFL model. In addition, interpersonal intelligence had greater effects on the EFL learners' motivation than the CSL learners' motivation. The findings would shed the light on the fields of EFL and CSL reading instruction.

**Keywords:** Motivation • EFL • CSL • Multiple intelligences • Learning strategy

### **Introduction**

Modern science and technology as well as globalization have turned the whole world into a global village. Universities around the world all embrace the global vision for nurturing their students to be members of the international society. English as medium of instruction (EMI) programs attracted thousands of international students to study in universities in Taiwan. Another instance was that plenty of international students studied in the Dutch university degree programs in which English was the medium of instruction. Internationalization had become a trend for the Dutch universities. In order to remove the language barrier for students, English was used to be the language of instruction instead of Dutch (Kotake, 2016). Although international students may benefit from the English medium instructions, they might still want to learn the language of the host countries. Likewise, the international students in Taiwan would try to learn Chinese as a second



language (L2).

Comparing it to learning English as a second or foreign language, learning Chinese as a second or foreign language is a tremendously difficult process. Because the spelling and sound system of English are more consistent than that of Chinese, English learners could learn English vocabulary much more easily than Chinese learners learning Chinese vocabulary. Because Chinese is not an alphabetical language, its word-forms, meanings, and pronunciation systems were very different from those of English. The CFL learners would have to spend much longer time in associating the Chinese characters with their sounds and meanings (Zhao, Li, & Bi, 2012).

It is indispensable for Taiwanese people to learn English because we need to connect to the world. For businesspersons, English is the most frequently used tool for international communication. Learning English becomes the essential channel to reach out to the global community. For example, local Taiwanese students hope to study abroad in the future to broaden their horizon. For them, it is an important issue to learn English well. On the other hand, international students learn Chinese as a foreign language in Taiwan would have the similar motivation as the Taiwanese EFL learners. It seems that international students all over the world would encounter related linguistic barriers. The purpose of this study is to investigate the similarities and differences of their reading skills between the EFL and CSL learners

### **Purpose of the Study**

The present study would investigate EFL and CSL reading outcomes that were associated with language learning strategies, multiple intelligences, and motivation. Through structural equation modeling, the current study aimed to establish reading models between EFL and CSL learners by associating learning strategies, multiple intelligences, motivation, and their reading comprehension outcomes as well as the differences in the model between the two groups of language learners. Therefore, the following research hypotheses (H<sub>1</sub> to H<sub>7</sub>) were formed to discover the relationships of learning strategies, multiple intelligences, motivation, and their reading comprehension outcomes, and the hypotheses (H<sub>c</sub> to H<sub>c8</sub>) for comparing the differences of the relationships of reading outcomes associating with these three factors between EFL and CSL learners.

H1: Motivation mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on reading scores.

H2: Motivation mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use.

H3: Strategy use mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on reading scores.

H4: Strategy use mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use.

H5: Motivation mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use.

H6: Strategy use mediates the effect of motivation on reading scores.

H7: Strategy use mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on reading scores.

Hc: The CSL learners' standardized regression weights of all paths are significantly different from those of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c1</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of strategy use in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c2</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of motivation in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c3</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c4</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of linguistic intelligence in the prediction of motivation is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c5</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of linguistic intelligence in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c6</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of motivation is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c7</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c8</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of motivation in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

## **Literature Review**

L2 acquisition research showed that learning Chinese vocabulary through association of words and pictures was more successful than learning vocabulary in the virtual environment in the first three weeks. Although the cognitive loading for language acquisition was larger for the virtual environment group, four weeks later, this group outperformed their counterparts for Chinese vocabulary learning (Lan, Fang, Legault, & Li, 2015). In the comparison of timed reading treatments, EFL Japanese college students in the extensive reading training group showed better improvement in reading than those in the traditional grammar translation method (McLean & Rouault, 2017). EFL learners often used articles incorrectly and learning to use articles properly was probably one of the difficulties that EFL learners encountered in acquiring English. Through the explicit instruction of articles in lexical bundles, the research findings showed evident improvements of correct usage of articles in experiment group (Shin & Kim, 2017).

## **Language Learning Strategies**

Language learning strategies (LLS) were defined as the measures, actions, and processes that learners took to acquire or remember the target language in an easier and more effective way (O'Malley, & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). The development of LLS included the following three stages: the first stage was the discovery of LLS and the strategies of the more effective learners (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). The second stage was the theoretical classification of LLS and discovery of LLS factors (Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990); and the third stage was the theoretical integration of LLS studies and application of LLS on language learning improvements (Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai, & Wang, 2015; Meyer, 2015; Nambiar, 2009).

The current research adopted Oxford's LLS that included memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective and social strategies (Oxford, 1990). Oxford categorized these six types of LLS into direct and indirect strategies. Memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies that learners used throughout the language learning process were direct strategies. On the other hand, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies were

indirect strategies that learners used to monitor their language learning or cope with learning difficulties.

Research showed that language learners with higher proficiency reported to use LLS more (Chamot, O'Malley, Kupper, & Impink-Hernandez, 1987; Nyikos, 1987). Advanced learners were inclined to use more communication-oriented strategies (Oxford & Nyikos 1989). The intermediate L2 learners had not yet acquired higher proficiency; as a result, a larger range of strategies would be needed for L2 acquisition (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Oxford, 2011).

Some studies suggested that successful learners reported to use several different strategies in an instructed setting while other research showed that L2 learners used their strategies differently when their learning contexts and second language proficiency improved (Griffiths, 2003; Macaro, 2006). The young L2 learners of English in Indonesia reported to use more social-affective and metacognitive strategies than other types of strategies; and the learners with more confidence in completing English learning tasks used more strategies than those who were less confident (Anam & Stracke, 2016). For grownups, it is perplexingly difficult to obtain any L2 proficiency in classrooms (Ellis, 2005).

There were no clear evidence that male and female learners use different strategies. Nevertheless, female learners usually used LLS more frequently than male learners did (Oxford & Nyikos 1989; Ehrman & Oxford 1990; Griffiths, 2004; Nambiar, 2009); and their strategy use was affected by different target languages; English native speakers used more strategies learning Russian than learners of Spanish (Politzer, 1983; Chamot et al, 1987).

CSL learners of different proficiency levels used different strategies to read. Students with intermediate-proficiency made their efforts on decoding characters; and the advanced-proficiency learners made predictions and inferences confidently and efficiently (Ke & Chan, 2017). CSL learners who performed better used more memory, cognitive, metacognitive and compensation strategies (Chu, Lin, Chen, Tsai, & Wang, 2015). Learners with Chinese cultural background used metacognitive, affective, and social strategies less frequently than learners without Chinese cultural background (Sung, 2011). Furthermore, Chinese learners with higher language attainment tended to use more metacognitive strategies (Wang, Spencer & Xing, 2009). Proficient EFL and CSL learners use similar strategies in learning vocabulary and advanced EFL learners paid attention to how to use a new word, highlighted hard words, looked up unfamiliar words, and dealt with vocabulary

learning difficulties more often than less proficient learners (Lin, 2015).

### **Multiple Intelligences**

Intelligence was once cogitated to be one single element. This element was called the “g” factor, which was identified by researchers on a large scale of data observed in the experiments of cognitive ability tests (Spearman, 1904; Thorndike, 1987). The multiple intelligences (MI), asserted by Gardner (1983), was considered as a set of explicit capabilities but not considered as single collective competence. According to Gardner’s early theory, seven diverse intelligences that individuals possess were identified, including musical-rhythmic and harmonic, visual-spatial, verbal-linguistic, logical-mathematical, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences; the eighth intelligence, and naturalistic intelligence, was proposed later (Gardner, 1995; Gardner, 1999). Gardner asserted that teachers ought to facilitate the learners make the best of their potentials to acquire knowledge. He suggested that most intelligence theories overlooked learners’ creativity and intelligence quotient tests had no way to predict learners’ success in the future. Gardner asserted that individuals possessed multiple intelligences that were a unique set of abilities to resolve problems or to create something. This set of abilities was not limited to the verbal and mathematical intelligences that traditional theorists proposed (Gardner, 1993; Gardner, 2006).

Armstrong (2009) and Ghamrawi (2014) found that better outcomes resulted from language learners applying their multiple intelligences in language learning. Linguistic intelligence was highly associated with tactile and auditory learning styles (Baleghizadeh & Shayeghi, 2014). CSL learners in China preferred to learn Chinese through social strategy (Ni, 2007). Linking social media with reading allowed readers to comprehend Chinese vocabulary in a way that traditional reading could not offer (Thoms, Sung, & Poole, 2017).

### **Motivation**

Motivation, deriving from the Latin verb ‘movere’, meaning to move, was perceived as individuals’ inner forces, sustaining behaviors, and reactions to stimuli. Motivation was the course of development that triggered individuals to pursue and maintain to pursue their goals (Schunk, Meece, & Pintrich, 2013). Motivation of learning referred to the aspiration learners showed in their individual learning commitments (Reeve, 2012).

Motivation affected L2 learning in many ways. It is an essential criterion for learners to acquire second language successfully (Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006), and it is also significant for L2 learners to maintain target language proficiency continuously (Hiromori, 2009). The learners who strongly motivated by his or her intrinsic reasons would have more confidence and lower anxiety when communicating in the second language (Dörnyei, 2003; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004).

Language learners with motivation made progress in their learning. Danish students' motivation of Chinese language learning was enhanced by the task-based teaching and learning (Du, Zhao, Ruan, Wang, & Duan, 2017). Japanese elementary EFL learners engaged more in learning showed more internal motives and fewer external motives. Young male learners showed lower engagement, lower internal regulated motives, and higher external motives (Oga-Baldwin & Nakata, 2017). A self-instruction program was used to facilitate Spanish university EFL students. The result showed that students with lower competence demonstrated higher motivation and the degree of motivation was the most influential factor in students' perception of improvement in EFL communication through the web-based learning program (Barrios Espinosa, 2015). Gender difference was another factor to be considered in the study of learning motivation. Japanese elementary female learners had stronger motivation in learning foreign language than their male peers and accomplished better in foreign language learning (Fryer, 2015; Kozaki & Ross, 2011).

However, motivation did not significantly predict the learning outcomes in the online language learning setting. Language learners demonstrated low motivation in the online language courses in these two studies and this pointed out motivation needed further investigation to identify the role it played on language learning (Lin, Zhang, and Zheng, 2017).

To sum up, LLS use was found to be affected by the learners' ages, their proficiency levels, their learning styles, and the linguistic features of their target languages. The current study investigated the interactive effects of LLS, multiple intelligences, and motivation on ESL and CSL learners reading comprehension.

## **Methodology**

The subjects of the current study were 285 foreigners in Taiwan and 295 local students learning English as a foreign language. In order to have access to the foreign language learners in Taiwan; the snowball sampling technique was employed in the present study.

Out of the 405 questionnaires distributed, only 295 people finished the survey. The EFL learners were vocational college students in central Taiwan. Three classes were randomly selected from national vocational colleges and five classes were randomly selected from private vocational colleges. Out of the 392 students receiving the questionnaires, only 285 students completed the survey.

The survey tools included (a) the reading comprehension test and (b) multiple intelligence questions, learning strategy use questions, and motivation questions. The English reading test, containing 15 reading comprehension questions, was adopted from a TOEIC sample test ([http://www.toEIC.com.tw/about\\_test5.jsp](http://www.toEIC.com.tw/about_test5.jsp)). The Chinese reading test, containing 15 reading comprehension questions, was revised from SAT II Chinese simulation test.

The multiple intelligence questions were revised from the research of Shieh (2000) and the learning strategy use and motivation questions were adopted from the questionnaire of Lin (2017). The EFL learners received English version of the questionnaire and the CSL learners received the Chinese version. SPSS version 23 was employed to verify reliabilities, validities, regression weights, model fits, and group comparisons for the current research model.

## **Results**

### **Descriptive Statistics of the Study**

There were 580 subjects (44% male and 56% female) of which 50.9% were EFL learners and 49.1% were CSL learners, participating in the current study. The average of the reading comprehension scores of the EFL and CSL students were 7.559 and 8.053 respectively. The missing value of a particular variable was changed to the mean of that variable. In order to examine whether data were normally distributed, the values of skewness and kurtosis of each observed variables were checked. All skewness values of the observed variables in this study, ranging from -1.129 to .294, were bounded below the absolute value of 1.96. That verified all the observed variables were normally distributed. The kurtosis values of the observed variables in this study, ranging from -1.088 to .860, were bounded below the absolute value of 1.96. That verified all the observed variables were normally distributed. Since these observed variables were normally distributed, the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method was suitable for the structural equation modeling (SEM).

Through exploratory factor analysis with the extraction method of principal component analysis, the learning strategy variables with factor loadings greater than .7 were extracted. These learning strategy variables included meta2, cog2, meta1, cog3, and meta3 (see Table 1) whose factor loadings were .742, .742, .736, .731, and .722 respectively.

The internal consistency of individual construct was checked by examining Cronbach's  $\alpha$ . The Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values of strategy use, math-logical intelligence, linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, kinesthetic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, musical intelligence, intrapersonal intelligence, naturalist intelligence, and motivation were .868, .859, .858, .846, .869, .767, .856, .778, .812, and .825 respectively. All these Cronbach's  $\alpha$  values, ranging from .767 to .869, showed that the internal consistency was either good or acceptable. This was one of the necessary measure to prove that the individual set of variable items in the study was unidimensional. Furthermore, the average variance extracted (AVE) was a statistical measurement to verify convergent validity. All of the AVE values of the aforementioned latent variables were .573, .680, .694, .657, .699, .543, .663, .539, .594, and .613, respectively, all greater than .5, specifying all these latent constructs were unidimensional.

### **Construction of the CSL and EFL Reading Comprehension Model**

The first step of creating the reading model was to investigate the intelligences that were contributive to reading comprehension. All of the eight intelligences were scrutinized to verify which intelligence has a positive regression weight to the reading comprehension. The result showed that only linguistic intelligence and interpersonal intelligence had positive regression weights on reading comprehension, indicating these two intelligences contributed positively to the reading outcome of EFL and CSL learners. Then the strategies with regression weight less than .7 were eliminated. The remaining five strategies, including two cognitive strategies (cog2 and cog3) and three metacognitive strategies (meta1, meta2, and meta3) with regression weights .760, .713, .805, .801, and .706 respectively, were then chosen to be the latent constructs for the upcoming proposed model. The next step was to identify the interrelationships among the strategies, motivation, linguistic intelligence, interpersonal intelligence, and reading comprehension.



---

Table 1  
*List of Language Learning Strategies*

---

Strategy	Description
Cog2	I mimic the tone of speakers of the target language.
Cog3	I try to make out the meaning of a word by separating it into parts.
Meta1	I become aware of other people's conversations in the target language
Meta2	I pay attention to my mistakes when using the target language.
Meta3	I find chances to read as much as possible in the target language, such as menus or brochures.

---

## Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses of this model were presented as follow:

H1: Motivation mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on reading scores.

H2: Motivation mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use.

H3: Strategy use mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on reading scores.

H4: Strategy use mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use.

H5: Motivation mediates the effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use.

H6: Strategy use mediates the effect of motivation on reading scores.

H7: Strategy use mediates the effect of linguistic intelligence on reading scores.

All probabilities of the regression weights in the initial model were checked to eliminate the ones that were not significant to find the most parsimonious model. As shown in Table 2, the standardized estimates of the regression weights ranged from -.214 to .386. The result showed that only the probability of the regression weight for linguistic intelligence in the prediction of reading scores ( $\beta = .028$ ,  $p = .613$ ) was not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two-tailed), indicating linguistic intelligence did not have a direct effect on reading scores. Thus, the result did not supported hypotheses H<sub>1</sub> and H<sub>7</sub>. The other probabilities of the regression weights were all significantly different from zero at the 0.05

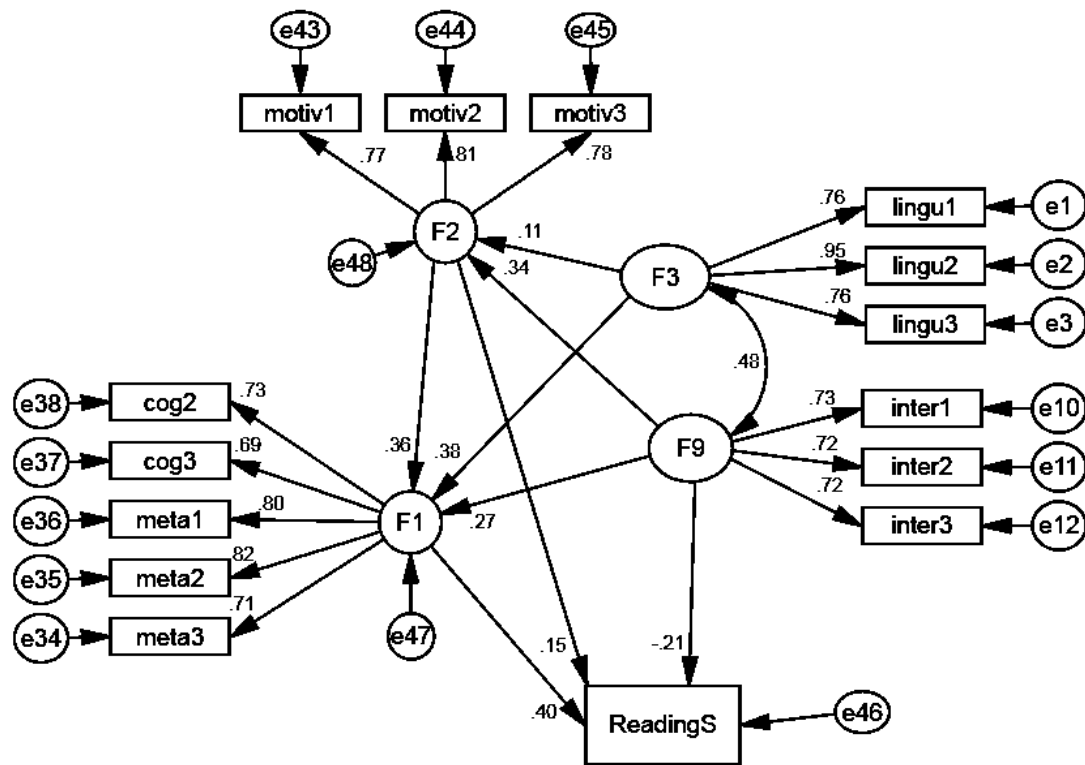
level (two-tailed). Therefore, the result supported hypotheses H<sub>2</sub>, H<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>5</sub>, and H<sub>6</sub>. The model was presented in Figure 1.

Table 2

List of Standardized Estimates of Regression Weights and Their Probabilities

			Estimate $\beta$	$p$
Motivation	<---	Linguistic Intelligence	.107	.047*
Motivation	<---	Interpersonal Intelligence	.343	***
Strategy Use	<---	Linguistic Intelligence	.376	***
Strategy Use	<---	Interpersonal Intelligence	.265	***
Strategy Use	<---	Motivation	.364	***
Reading Scores	<---	Strategy Use	.386	***
Reading Scores	<---	Interpersonal Intelligence	-.213	***
Reading Scores	<---	Motivation	.160	.005**
Reading Scores	<---	Linguistic Intelligence	.029	.601

\* indicated that  $p < .05$ ; \*\* indicated that  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\* indicated that  $p < .001$



chi-square=181.149; Degree of freedom =76; P value=.000;  
GFI=.961; AGFI=.938; RMSEA=.049; CFI=.974; TLI=.965

Figure 1 The CSL and EFL Reading Model

Examination of the model using SEM of AMOS 23 indicated that this model fitted the data well ( $\chi^2 = 181.149$ ,  $df = 76$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $GFI = .961$ ,  $AGFI = .938$ ,  $RMSEA = .049$ ,  $CFI = .974$ ,  $TLI = .965$ ). Byrne (2010) suggested that models with an RMSEA of 0.08 or less and preferably 0.05 or less were good fitting models. Figure 1 showed the entire model with accompanying path coefficients. Overall, the final model contained latent variables which influenced the reading scores, with path coefficients -.207, .154, and .404.

First, as shown in Table 3, the total effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use was .390 and the indirect effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use through motivation was .124, accounting for 31.8% of the total effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use. Secondly, the total effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use was .416 and the indirect effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use through motivation was .039, accounting for 9.4% of the total effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use. These suggested that motivation had partial mediation effects on both paths from (a) linguistic intelligence to strategy use and (b) interpersonal intelligence to strategy use. In other words,

learners with interpersonal intelligence applied more language strategies listed and influenced partially by their motivation. Learners with interpersonal intelligence applied these cognitive and metacognitive strategies listed more; furthermore, motivation affected nearly one third on their strategy use.

Concerning the influential factors of the reading scores, linguistic intelligence had an indirect effect ( $\beta = .185$ ) on reading scores. Motivation had a total effect ( $\beta = .301$ ) and a direct effect ( $\beta = .154$ ) on reading scores. Strategy use, as a mediator of motivation on reading scores, had an indirect effect of .147. Strategy use had a direct effect on reading scores ( $\beta = .404$ ). Among these three factors, strategy use had the most influential effect on reading scores, followed by motivation and linguistic intelligence.

Table 3

List of Total Effects, Direct Effects, and Indirect Effects

	Interpersonal	Linguistic	Motivation	Strategy Use
Strategy Use				
Total Effects	.390***	.416***	.363***	
Direct Effects	.265***	.377***	.363***	
Indirect Effects	.124***	.039	-	
Reading Scores				
Total Effects	.004	.185***	.301***	.404***
Direct Effects	-.207***	-	.154*	.404***
Indirect Effects	.210***	.185***	.147***	-

All estimates ( $\beta$ ) are standardized.

Motivation affected CSL and EFL learners' use of strategy: it accounted for nearly one third of the total effect of interpersonal intelligence on strategy use. In contrast, motivation accounted for only 9.4% of the total effect of linguistic intelligence on strategy use. When CSL and EFL learners with higher linguistic intelligence applied language learning strategies, motivation still affected their strategy use ( $\beta = .039$ ) but it did not play a role as essentially as in language learning strategy use of the higher interpersonal intelligence learners ( $\beta = .124$ ).

The total effect of motivation on the reading scores was .301 and the indirect effect of learning strategy use as a mediator from motivation to the reading scores was .147, accounting for roughly a half (49%) of the path for total effect. In other words, learners with higher motivation and used more learning strategies would have higher reading scores.

In contrast, the total effect of linguistic intelligence on reading scores was .185 and the direct path from linguistic intelligence to reading scores was not significant. Motivation and strategy use functioned as full mediators of that relationship. This result showed that motivation and strategy use had full mediation effects on the relationship between linguistic intelligence and reading scores. That meant higher linguistic intelligence learners who were motivated and applied more learning strategies would gain better reading scores.

The direct effect of the path from interpersonal intelligence to reading scores was -.207; however, the indirect effect of this relationship was .210, which indicated that both motivation and strategy use had positive indirect effects on the path from interpersonal intelligence to reading scores. Comparing to strategy use and motivation, interpersonal intelligence had a trivial total effect ( $\beta = .004$ ) on learners' reading scores.

### CSL and EFL Group Comparison

Table 4

Nested Model Comparisons EFL vs. CSL

Model	D F	CMI N	P	NFI Delta -1	IFI Delta -2	RFI rho- 1	TLI rho2
-------	--------	----------	---	--------------------	--------------------	------------------	-------------

Structura		58.32	.00			-	
l weights	18	4	0	.012	.012	.002	-.002

---

Note. Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct.

In order to verify the individual path that was significantly different from each other between CSL and EFL groups in this model, the hypotheses were presented as followed:

H<sub>c1</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of strategy use in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c2</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of motivation in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c3</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of reading scores is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c4</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of linguistic intelligence in the prediction of motivation is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c5</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of linguistic intelligence in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c6</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of motivation is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c7</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of interpersonal intelligence in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

H<sub>c8</sub>: The CSL's standardized regression weight of motivation in the prediction of strategy use is significantly different from the standardized regression weight of the EFL learners'.

Table 5

## Individual Path Nested Model Comparisons Learning Chinese vs. Learning English

Constrained Model	DF	$\chi^2$	<i>p</i>	$\beta$ (CSL)	$\beta$ (EFL)
Strategy Use→Reading Scores	1	2.040	.153	.172	.581
<b>Motivation→Reading Scores</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>6.900**</b>	<b>.009</b>	<b>.329</b>	<b>.006</b>
Interpersonal→Reading Scores	1	2.107	.147	-.227	-.092
Linguistic→Motivation	1	3.812	.051	.177	.008
Linguistic→Strategy Use	1	3.447	.063	.255	.395
<b>Interpersonal→Motivation</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>8.387**</b>	<b>.004</b>	<b>.161</b>	<b>.657</b>
Interpersonal→Strategy Use	1	.398	.528	.298	.305
Motivation→Strategy Use	1	.038	.845	.456	.262

Note. Assuming model Unconstrained to be correct.

From Table 5, the result showed that the data supported both hypotheses H<sub>c2</sub> and H<sub>c6</sub>. The other hypotheses for group comparison were rejected. Between EFL and CSL learners, there were statistically significant differences in both paths: (a) from motivation to reading scores and (b) from interpersonal intelligence to motivation. However, there were no statistically significant differences in the other paths between EFL and CSL learners. The result indicated that motivation had a stronger positive effect on reading scores in the CSL group ( $\beta = .329$ ) than that in the EFL group ( $\beta = .006$ ); also interpersonal intelligence had a stronger positive effect on motivation in the EFL group ( $\beta = .657$ ) than that in the CSL group ( $\beta = .161$ ). In other words, from the findings shown above, two paths were significantly different between the EFL and CSL learners in the present model. The first path was from motivation to reading scores. Motivation had greater effects on CSL learners' reading scores than on EFL learners' reading scores. Motivation really played an essential role in learning Chinese as a second language. The second path was from interpersonal intelligence to motivation. Interpersonal intelligence had greater effects on the EFL learners' motivation than the CSL learners' motivation.

## **Conclusion**

The current study specifically looked into the relations of the multiple intelligences, learning strategy use, and motivation as well as their effects on reading comprehension outcomes for CSL and EFL learners. The subjects were 285 international students studying in Taiwan and 295 local students learning English as a foreign language.

Analyzing the positive factors that influenced their reading scores in the CSL model, the researchers discovered that motivation was the most important factor affected their reading scores followed by strategy use. In contrast, strategy use was the most crucial factor that positively influenced their reading scores in the EFL model. The reason was probably that the CSL learners had a lot more chances to communicate in the target language than the EFL learners did. Because Chinese is the fundamental communication tool for CSL learners, it was imperative for the CSL learners to comprehend the Chinese reading messages in their daily life. On the other hand, strategy use played the crucial role affecting EFL learners' reading scores. In the foreign language environment, EFL learners might comprehend better when they apply more learning strategies and therefore gain better reading scores.

The consensus of Wang (2016), Lin, Zhang, and Zheng's (2017), and the present research appeared to be that language learning strategy use significantly predicted the learning outcomes. In the current study, researchers found that learning strategy use was the most important factor that affected the reading outcomes. This might not be the most influential factor of reading outcomes for CSL learners but the learning strategy use was the dominant factor of reading outcomes for EFL learners. Secondly, motivation significantly predicted neither the foreign language learning outcomes in Lin, Zhang, and Zheng's research (2017) nor the EFL reading outcomes in the present study. Nonetheless, it did significantly predict the CSL reading outcomes in the present study. The reason behind this might be that motivation was the most essential factor to acquire the target language in the L2 environment. If learners were not motivated, they were unable to learn the target language even in the L2 environment.

## **Limitations and Implications**

The limitation of the research was that all the data were collected from the research subjects by self-reporting. The finding might be unable to reveal the whole reading process of the EFL and CSL learners. Random sampling was not used for the CSL subjects; the results were unable to be generalized to other language learners. The reading proficiency of



CSL learners was assessed by an inventory of 15 Chinese reading comprehension questions. The restricted numbers of questions in the EFL and CSL reading inventories might not reveal their English or Chinese reading proficiency thoroughly.

Therefore, there were three suggestions for future studies. The first suggestion was to develop various reading comprehension questionnaires to assess EFL and CSL learners' reading proficiency. Secondly, randomly selected subjects should be enrolled in future studies. Thirdly, measures other than self-reported data could be brought into future studies to explore the reading process of language learners.

## References

- Anam, S. & Stracke, E. (2016). Language learning strategies of Indonesian primary school students: In relation to self-efficacy beliefs. *System*, 60, 1-10. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2016.05.001
- Armstrong, T. (2000). *Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom*. Alexandria, VA: ASCD.
- Armstrong, T. (2009). *Multiple Intelligences in the Classroom* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Shayeghi, R. (2014). The relationship between perceptual learning style preferences and Multiple Intelligences among Iranian EFL learners. *Innovations in Education & Teaching International*, 51(3), 255-264. doi:10.1080/14703297.2013.785250
- Barrios Espinosa, E. (2015). The effects of sex, level of competence in English and grade of motivation on perceptions of learning through a web-based program. *Educación XXI*, 18(1), 283-302. doi: 10.5944/educXX1.18.1.12333
- Byrne, B. M. (2010). *Structural Equation Modeling with AMOS: Basic Concepts, Applications and Programming* (2nd ed.). New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Chamot, A. U., O'Malley, J. M., Kupper, L., Impink-Hernandez, M. V. (1987). *A study of learning strategies in foreign language instruction: First year report*. Interstate Research Associates, Inc., Rosslyn, VA.

- Chu, W., Lin, D., Chen, T., Tsai, P., & Wang, C. (2015). The relationships between ambiguity tolerance, learning strategies, and learning Chinese as a second language. *System*, 49, 1-16.
- Deci, E. L. (1971). Effects of eternally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 18(1), 105-115.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (1985). The general causality orientations scale: Self-determination in personality. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 19, 109-134.
- Deci, E. L. & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, 54-67.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. In Z. Dörnyei (Ed.), *Attitudes, Orientations, and Motivations in Language Learning* (pp. 3–32). Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalization*. Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Du, X., Zhao, K., Ruan, Y., Wang, L., & Duan, X. (2017). Beginner CFL learners' perceptions of language difficulty in a task-based teaching and learning (TBTL) environment in Denmark. *System*, 69, 108-120. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.07.001
- Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. L. (1990). Adult language learning styles and strategies in an intensive training setting. *The Modern Language Journal*, 74(3), 311-327.
- Ellis, R. (2005). Principles of instructed language learning. *System*, 33, 209-224.
- Fryer, L. K. (2015). Predicting self-concept, interest and achievement for first-year students: The seeds of lifelong learning. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 38, 107-114. doi:10.1016/j.lindif.2015.01.007
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple Intelligences: The Theory in Practice*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (1995). Reflections on multiple intelligences: Myths and messages. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77, 200-209.
- Gardner, H. (1999). *Intelligence Reframed: Multiple intelligences for the 21st Century*. New York, NY: Basic Books.
- Gardner, H. (2006). *Multiple Intelligences: New horizons*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

- Ghamrawi, N. (2014). Multiple Intelligences and ESL Teaching and Learning: An Investigation in KG II Classrooms in One Private School in Beirut, *Lebanon. Journal of Advanced Academics*, 25 (1), 25-46. doi:10.1177/1932202X13513021
- Griffiths, C. (2003). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31, 367-383.
- Griffiths, C. (2004). *Language learning strategies: Theory and research*. Retrieved from <http://pdfcast.org/pdf/language-learning-strategies-theory-and-research>.
- Hiromori, T. (2009). A process model of L2 learners' motivation: From the perspectives of general tendency and individual differences. *System*, 37, 313-321.
- Hong-Nam, K., & Leavell, A. G. (2006). Language learning strategy use of ESL students in an intensive English learning context. *System*, 34, 399-415.
- Ke, S. & Chan, S. (2017). Strategy use in L2 Chinese reading: The effect of L1 background and L2 proficiency. *System*, 66, 27-38. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.03.005
- Kotake, M. (2016). An analytical framework for internationalization through English-taught degree programs: A Dutch case study. *Journal of Studies in International Education*, 21 (3), 213-229. doi: 10.1177/1028315316662983
- Kozaki, Y. & Ross, S. J. (2011). Contextual dynamics in foreign language learning motivation. *Language Learning*, 61 (4), 1328-1354. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00638.x
- Lan, Y., Fang, S., Legault, J., & Li, P. (2015). Second language acquisition of Mandarin Chinese vocabulary: context of learning effects. *Educational Technology Research & Development*, 63(5), 671-690. doi:10.1007/s11423-015-9380-y
- Lin, C. M. (2015). Do Good EFL and CSL Learners Learn Words in Different Ways? *International Multilingual Journal of Contemporary Research*. 3(2), 63-74. doi: 10.15640/imjcr.v3n2a7
- Lin, C. M. (2017). *Exploring EFL Listening Comprehension Processes*. Taiwan: Crane.
- Lin, C., Zhang, Y., & Zheng, B. (2017). The roles of learning strategies and motivation in online language learning: A structural equation modeling analysis. *Computers & Education*, 113, 75-85. doi: 10.1016/j.compedu.2017.05.014
- Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: Revising the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal*, 90, 320-337.
- Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System*, 32, 21-36. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2003.08.002

- McLean, S. & Rouault, G. (2017). The effectiveness and efficiency of extensive reading at developing reading rates. *System*, 70, 92-106. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.09.003
- Meyer, W. S. (2015). *A Study of Adult Language Learning Strategies Used by Full-time and Part-time Graduate English Majors in China* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Minnesota, Twin Cities.
- Nambiar, R. (2009). Learning strategy research –Where are we now? *The Reading Matrix*, 9(2), 132-149.
- Ni, C. (2007). An analysis of the learning needs of international learners of Chinese in China. *Language Teaching and Linguistic Studies*, 1, 68-76.
- Nyikos, M. (1987). *The effect of color and imagery as mnemonic strategies on learning and retention of lexical items in German* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Purdue University, West Lafayette, IN.
- Oga-Baldwin, W.L.Q., Nakata, Y. (2017). Engagement, gender, and motivation: A predictive model for Japanese young language learners. *System*, 65, 151-163. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2017.01.011
- O'Malley, J. M. & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House/Harper & Row.
- Oxford, R. L. (1993). Instructional implications of gender differences in L2 learning styles and strategies. *Applied Language Learning*, 4(2), 65-94.
- Oxford, R. L. (2011). Teaching and researching language learning strategies. *Upper Saddle River, NJ*: Longman, Pearson ESL.
- Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). *System*, 23, 1-23.
- Oxford, R., Cho, Y., Leung, S., & Kim, H. (2004). Effect of the presence and difficulty of task on strategy use: An exploratory study. *IRAL — International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 42, 1-47.
- Oxford, R., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The modern language journal*, 73(3), 291-300.

- Politzer, R. L. (1983). An exploratory study of self-reported language learning behaviors and their relation to achievement. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 6, 54-65.
- Reeve J. (2012) A Self-determination Theory Perspective on Student Engagement. In Christenson S., Reschly A., Wylie C. (Eds), *Handbook of Research on Student Engagement*. (pp.149-172). Boston, MA: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-1-4614-2018-7\_7
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the 'good language learner' can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9, 41-51.
- Sandberg, J., Maris, M., & de Geus, K. (2011). Mobile English learning: An Evidence-based study with fifth graders. *Computers & Education*, 57(1), 1334-1347.
- Schunk, D. H., Judith R Meece, J. R., & Pintrich, P. R. (2013). *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications*, 4th Edition. New Jersey, NJ: Pearson Education.
- Shieh, C. T. (2000). *The relationship among multiple intelligences, thinking styles, and critical thinking abilities of the fifth and sixth graders*. Unpublished master thesis. National Sun Yat-sen University.
- Shin, Y. K. & Kim, Y. J. (2017). Using lexical bundles to teach articles to L2 English learners of different proficiencies. *System* 69, 79-91. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.08.002
- Spearman, C. (1904). General intelligence, objectively determined and measured. *American Journal of Psychology*, 15, 201-293.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 34, 304-318.
- Sung, K. (2011). Factors influencing Chinese language learners' strategy use. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 8 (2), 117-134. doi:10.1080/14790718.2010.532555
- Thoms, J. J.; Sung, K.; & Poole, F. (2017). Investigating the linguistic and pedagogical affordances of an L2 open reading environment via eComma: An exploratory study in a Chinese language course. *System*, 69, 38-53. doi:10.1016/j.system.2017.08.003
- Thorndike, R. L. (1987). Stability of factor loadings. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 8, 585-586.
- Wang, J., Spencer, K., & Xing, M. (2009). Metacognitive beliefs and strategies in learning Chinese as a foreign language. *System*, 37, 46-56. doi:10.1016/j.system.2008.05.001
- Wang, Y-H. (2016). Reading Strategy Use and Comprehension Performance of More Successful and Less Successful Readers: A Think-aloud Study. *Educational Sciences, Theory and Practice*, 16(5), 1789-1831. doi: 10.12738/estp.2016.5.0116

Zhao, J., Li, Q-L., & Bi, H-Y. (2012). The characteristics of Chinese orthographic neighborhood size effect for developing readers. *PLoS ONE* 7 (10): e46922. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0046922



## **Ecolinguistics for Teaching English**

**Maria Arina Luardini, Merilyn Simbolon**

*Palangka Raya University, Indonesia*

### **Biodata**

**Maria A. Luardini** and **Merilyn S.** are English teachers at Palangka Raya University, Central Kalimantan. Their research interests include in Linguistics and Language Teaching. Email address: [maria\\_luardini@yahoo.com](mailto:maria_luardini@yahoo.com); [Merilyn.simbolon@gmail.com](mailto:Merilyn.simbolon@gmail.com)

### **Abstract**

This research aims to describe the application of ecological linguistics – *ecolinguistics* for teaching English with two considerations: (1) concerning the fact that some university students cannot identify the names of plants which grow around them, and (2) clarifying the contradiction of the National Curriculum of 2013 issued by the Ministry of National Education and Culture of the Republic of Indonesia that teaching should promote local development, but the syllabus and handouts are provided directly by the Ministry. This action research was conducted by applying *ecolinguistics* to the eighth grade students of State Junior High Schools (hereafter called SMP) of SMPN 1, SMPN 2, and SMPN 3 in Selat, Kapuas Regency with the total number of 57 students. The data were students' handwriting of a narrative text of a local story, and procedure text of how to make traditional soup from young rattan. The results show that (1) the students were very motivated and enthusiastic, especially when the students talked about the linguistic expressions they know well – ecolinguistics of animals and plants or ingredients (2) the students' tasks could show a meaningful learning as well as promoting local area by using linguistic expressions or familiar vocabulary lists, (3)

Palangka Raya University, Jl. Yos Sudarso, Kompleks UNPAR Tunjung Nyaho, Palangka Raya - 73111, Central Kalimantan, Indonesia
---

the students' mean scores achieved the school passing grade of 65, although there were some mistakes in language features.

**Keywords:** *Ecolinguistics, teaching English, National Curriculum of 2013.*

## **Introduction**

Based on *UU Sisdiknas* 'Constitution of National Education System' No. 20 year 2003, article 36 (the Ministry of National Education and Culture, 2013), the principle in organizing curriculum should consider at least three components: a) national standardized education, b) diversification of levels, the students, and the potential local areas, and c) should be in the frame of *Negara Kesatuan Republik Indonesia* 'Unitary State of the Republic of Indonesia' by considering character building, increasing students' understanding regarding national unity, national values, potential local areas and local development for facing global progress. For these purposes, the national curriculum for primary and secondary level might be developed by each educational unit in the school under supervision from the Regional Education Office or Provincial (ibid, article 38). Therefore, graduated standard competences stated in UU No. 20 year 2003 are: having good attitude as a religious individual, having good morals, self-confidence, responsibility for the interaction within their social environment, residential surroundings, and their circumstances.

For reaching all those educational purposes, the Ministry of National Education and Culture has prepared a guideline of the national curriculum as well as the handouts for all provinces over Indonesia. The preparation for this new curriculum implemented in 2015 seems to be a well prepared plan. However, this centralization system will have disadvantages for the regions which have different environments. It is well-known that Indonesia has diverse ethnic groups with different socio-cultural values. Moreover, provided materials and handouts from the government will affect the teachers' creativity in teaching. Although the government has advised that all teachers should create the material for teaching, it is found in the informal observation of 20 elementary school teachers who pursued *sarjana* degrees (graduate diplomas) in distance learning at the Open University in Kapuas Regency, that no single teacher modified the material of the provided handouts. It means that all of these teachers relied on handouts only.

Regarding the ambiguous regulation of the educational system where in one side the government needs a national standard, but on the other side it also promotes local development, it needs a serious solution for encouraging the teachers to modify the provided material which



can cover the national standard as well as promoting the local values. For this purpose, this research also aims to broaden the teachers' horizons on how to develop syllabi which can promote potential local areas, especially in Central Kalimantan, within a single problem question: How can ecological linguistics support the teachers to modify the prepared material on syllabi by promoting potential local areas?

## Literature review

The importance of introducing the students to their environment is based on the fact that most *Dayak Ngaju* students on the university level do not know the names of medicinal plants which grow around them. Most of the students could identify/ recognize only the well-known medicinal plant names, such as *Kembang sepatu* which can be found in many places in Indonesia, *Rumput fatima*, *Ginseng gunung*, and *Pasak bumi* which are internationally used. Some students could identify the plants' names after the plants' pictures had been shown on a projector screen, but most of them could not mention their functions. This condition is assumed as a result of lack of introducing the names of those plants, although the students live in the environment where the plants grow.

There is a study that looks at the relationship between language and its environment known as Ecological Linguistics or *Ecolinguistics*. This study deals with community mapping knowledge of environmental linguistic items/ expressions that are supposed to support language teaching, including teaching English. This assumption is based on some opinions on *ecolinguistics* related to plant linguistic expressions. Tulalesessy and Syahrin (in Luardini and Asi, 2014) find the same condition where the expressions of prominent plants *suo* 'sago palm' in Papua Island, and the flora used in the *Tepung Tawar* ritual for the Melayu Serdang community in Sumatra Island have been statistically decreased, especially for the youth. On the other hand, Rasna and Binawati (2012) prove that environmental expressions can be preserved and maintained well when the expressions are used for daily life, such as beliefs and culture. The *ecolinguistic* of medicinal plant research reports show that young people in Bali have a strong belief and maintenance in medications and they have very strong adherence to the linguistic expressions of medicinal plants. In fact, the people in Bali practice their beliefs through religious dances. It can be said that beliefs and cultures have influenced the language use – the use of medicinal plant expressions. So, based on this *ecolinguistics* theory, language and its environment are interrelated, including the environment of education for teaching a language. The environmental expressions are supposed to support potential local area as it is stated on a national syllabus.

Some educational theories which support *ecolinguistics* for the meaningful language teaching and learning are Behaviorism theory, Contextual Teaching and Learning (CTL), and Scientific Approaches (SA). Behaviorism was first introduced by B.F Skinner in 1904 – 1990 (Morris et. all. 2005), with the psychological principle that has become the fundamental theory of social science. It is considered that learning as a behavior will affect the learner's achievement, especially for learning a language where the learners can be trained by providing a stimulus as their behavior to recognize the responses. Similarly, CTL – an approach in teaching and learning – can help teachers to relate lesson content and the situation of the real world. Basically, the approach of CTL is considered as a response toward previous well-known approaches, behaviorism which stresses stimuli – responds with a drill practice. To be able to use language naturally like the use of language in daily life with various situations, one needs critical thinking and meaningful learning. When students know the relationships between the lesson in the classroom and real life, they realize the advantages/ significance of learning. This opinion is in line with SA concept which considers natural situation as the approach. Contextual learning provides a concept which relates the lesson material and the context where that lesson material is used. Context provides meanings, relevance and benefit toward learning.

## **Methodology**

This qualitative research is classified as an action research (Koshy, 2007) by applying *ecolinguistics* to teaching English. The primary data were students' scores and the secondary were teachers' lesson plans and handouts for teaching learning process. All the data were collected through observation, recording, field-notes, and tests. The validity for the tests was measured by the curriculum and syllabus at the level. The subjects for doing this research were the eighth grade students of SMPN 1, SMPN 2, and SMPN 3, Selat, Kapuas with the total number of 57 students and the teachers of those schools. All the activities, from observation to the implementation of *ecolinguistics*, including the tests, were conducted during April 2015 to January 2016. Some procedures in collecting the data are as the following.

- (1) Asking permission from the Research Office of Kapuas Regency.
- (2) Doing observation on teachers' lesson plans and classroom observation.
- (3) Identifying some texts consisting of environmental expressions.
- (4) Arranging lesson plans for classroom action research by the researchers and the teachers.
- (5) Implementing the *ecolinguistics* lesson plans.

- (6) Doing some productive tests of speaking and writing and determining the scoring rubrics for those two tests based on each skill criteria.
- (7) Analyzing the teaching learning process and the results of students' test scores.

### **Finding and discussion**

Teaching English by applying *ecolinguistics* is actually focused on the process of teaching itself rather than the final products of students' scores. The research results are divided into two categories: results of pre-action research and the action research of applying *ecolinguistics* for the students.

Based on the observation of teachers' lesson plans, the results show that from three schools, SMPN 1, Selat, Kapuas applies K-'13, while SMPN 2 and SMPN 3 adopt the previous curriculum of KTSP. The prominent differences between the two kinds of curriculum are:

- (1) the students' achievement, in which K-'13 includes the achievement of character building/ attitudes derived from the Core Competences, while in KTSP, the students' achievements are focused on cognitive elements through Standard Competence and Basic Competences.
- (2) the activity steps of K-'13 follow Scientific Approach which begin with observing > asking > trying > thinking/ reasoning > presenting > creating/ communicating. While in KTSP, the steps follow: *the pre – the whilst* (through Exploration, Elaboration, and Confirmation) – *the post activities*.

All contents in the lesson plans have matched to the material in the curriculum / syllabus of KTSP and K-'13; those are short and long functional texts either transactional or interpersonal ones, such as asking something, requesting and responding, long functional texts of *procedures, narrative, descriptive* and *report*. However, the beginning step of apperception or Building Knowledge of the Field (BKOF) vary from one to the others: two of them are not clearly stated, but one mentions this activity clearly, such as delivering questions about a moon picture which is closely related to when home life or home activities are conducted. Indeed, there is lesson plans from a teacher which are similar to those of general lesson plans provided by the Central Government with no single adaption. It indicates that the teacher does not modify the lesson plans for self-use.

The observation of classroom activities show that all teachers rely on handouts (books and LKS – *Lembar Kerja Siswa* 'students' work sheets') provided also by the Central

Government with one reason that they cannot adjust the National Examination when they do not use the handouts.

The English handbook and students' work sheets for the seventh grade level – the level where the students firstly introduced English language – one of the topics is a descriptive text that asks the students to describe animals around them (The Ministry of National Education and Culture. 2013). The handbook and students' work sheets provide pictures of: *an elephant, an ant, a rabbit, a giraffe, and a whale*. The SMP students in Central Kalimantan find difficulty in identifying elephants, giraffes, and whales. They can only imagine those kinds of animals. In this case, the teacher should be wise in providing appropriate models of animals which are familiar to the students, such as *monkey, crocodile, pigs or snake*. It also happens for the topic of food and junk food. The students are provided with some junk food pictures of *hotdog, burger, pizza, French fries, and instant noodle*. It cannot be denied that learning a language also means learning its culture. Consequently, learning English should also be a means of learning the culture where the English comes from. Therefore, meaningful learning for SMP level can be achieved only by the real model for the language. The SMP level students in Central Kalimantan cannot find the reference for *hotdog*, so that they have a problem in describing this object.

Relating to *ecolinguistics*, there are some texts consisted of environmental language expressions which are mostly in long functional texts; they are in procedure texts (how to make a traditional cuisine of *young rattan soup, ferns stir-fried, or how to harvest rubber*), descriptive texts (describing tourist destinations), and narrative texts (legends or folk tales: *Danum Kaharingan* 'water of life', *Lauk je Dia Batisk* 'fish with no scales'). Only two texts were implemented for teaching and learning process: Fish with No Scales and Young Rattan Soup.

The implementation of lesson plans consisted of *ecolinguistics* was held only at SMPN 1 and SMPN 3, Selat, Kapuas Regency based on the teachers' lesson plans criteria which adopt K-'13 and KTSP curriculum. The first implementation of *ecolinguistics* was held at SMPN 1 with a procedure text of *How to Make Young Rattan Soup* as the material. By using media of real species and ingredients and applying Audio-lingual Method (Bowen, 2015), the students were first introduced with the pronunciation of prominent linguistic expressions only. The linguistic expressions were those of spices and vegetables that can be found easily in the students' environment (taxonomy of spice and vegetable). Then, the students examined all the ingredients of the soup. As the text describes the 'how to make something', it means that the students also learned all the verbs of command for showing the steps in making the soup. Finally, the students learned how to write the expressions (vocabularies). For these purposes,

the tests for the students were a speaking test mentioning all the ingredients (for pronunciation and fluency scores) and a writing test in form of a cloze test (for vocabulary and spelling scores).

The second actions was held for two classes at SMPN 3, Selat, Kapuas which focused on the writing skill of rewriting a narrative text of folktale entitled *Fish With No Scales* (a story that happened in *Henda* District, a small district along the Kahayan River side in the southern part of Palangka Raya, the capital city of Central Kalimantan). The actions were conducted into two different ways: (1) listening and writing, and (2) reading and writing by using Total Physical Respond (TPR) approach (Decker, 2008).

The students' achievements are calculated differently between speaking test (cloze test) and writing test (guided writing). Scoring rubric for speaking test were only for *pronunciation* and *fluency*, with 10 items (5 nouns, and 5 verbs), which were calculated per item. The students' problem for speaking is only related to fluency as few students hesitated to pronounce the vocabulary, and only in spelling, which has become the obstacle for the students, such as when they wrote *redy* for *ready* or *solt* for *salt*.

For writing tests, the scoring rubric was adapted from Brown's (2001: 357) criteria: organization, grammar, vocabulary, and mechanics. The following are the prominent discussion on linguistic features and organization of a narrative text made by the students:

- a. Organization: most students did the writing test in a well organized text but some others could not fulfill the criteria of a narrative text. This is not a big problem as the students were guided in writing the text.
- b. Syntax: the prominent problems are the use of simple past tense and missing the predicate/ verb in some sentences:
  - *Where is Henda District? Henda District in the southern of Palangka Raya* (there is no predicate).
  - *What is the story about? The story about fish with no scales*
  - *What did the worms attack first? The worms attack plants first*
- c. Vocabulary: the problems dealing with vocabulary were illustrated in the case of pluralism and the use of pronouns, such as in the use of nouns *worms*, *scales*, *plants*, *animals*, and *human beings*, in which the students did not add suffix {—s}. Also, the use of pronoun when it functions as an object of a sentence, such as in: *All people followed **he** jumping to the river* or in *If the **worm** come back I can help **his***.

- d. Mechanics: the problems are in the use of punctuation and capitalization, such as in “*The first time they attacked plants*. (There is no comma after the use of adverb), and *Henda is located in the southern palangka raya city* (should be: Palangka Raya City).

Therefore, the final scores were calculated by using mean scores.

Table 1: *The Mean Score for Productive Tests*

Cloze test				
Speaking			Writing	
Pronunciation		Fluency	Vocabulary	Spelling
95.4		88.2	80.8	89.4
91.8		85.1		
Guided Writing				
By Listening				
Content		Vocabulary	Grammar	Mechanics
65.2	65.5	58.1	71.8	65.2
By Reading Comprehension				
86.7		82.6	76.3	80.7
				81.6

Those scores are slightly higher than the mean scores of the classroom teachers, except for the case of writing through listening. The text is too long for listening skill for SMP students, although the mean scores have reached the KKM or passing grade of 65.

Discussing the results to those from applying the *ecolinguistic* texts, the students were enthusiastic when they tried to say the ingredients for ‘young rattan soup’ provided by the researchers. The classroom atmosphere was lively and funny as some students sometime translated the names of ingredients in the local language, the *Dayak Ngaju* language. The same situation happened in the other class when the students tried to mention the names of animals in the story, such as the names of fish, pig and chicken. The students of both schools of SMPN 1 and SMPN 3, Selat, Kapuas successfully completed writing tasks and tests, although the achievements showed different mean scores. It cannot be denied that cloze tests are easier than those of guided writing (rewriting) in which the students should compose a text following the questions provided.

Based on these students’ final products of writing, there are some linguistic problems which can be related to factors: (1) the different systems of English and Indonesian grammar are considered as the source of the problems, especially in the use of ‘to be’. The Indonesian

language makes it possible to say: *Saya seorang guru* 'I a teacher' that should be 'I am a teacher'. This Indonesian sentence is acceptable, but not for English as it has no predicate/verb, (2) the lack of teachers' linguistic competence is supposed to be an additional problem for the students. The previous studies on teachers' linguistic competence show that some teachers, including certified teachers (professional teachers) still have problems in linguistics (Luardini and Asi, 2014; Halim, 2013).

Applying *ecolinguistics* for teaching English needs extra effort from the teachers to find environmental language expressions surrounded the community. The teachers might make taxonomy of environmental linguistic expressions, such as for animals which can be found easily by the students, or cuisine that is familiar for the students, such as *rattan soup*, *stir-fried ferns*, or *fish head soup*. Taxonomy of fish without scales is one example of fish *ecolinguistics*. Local environment, such as *swamp*, *peat*, *river*, *trees*, and *forest* should be introduced to the students as they live in these surroundings. Introducing environmental linguistic expressions will not only build students' vocabulary but also will maintain students' culture: vocabulary is the prominent element in expressing ideas for English as a foreign language (EFL) class, and culture will help the students to understand their environment – how to gain benefits from it or how to preserve it, such as how to preserve swamp-peat from forest fire.

However, conducting the teaching learning process by applying *ecolinguistics* needs the creativity of an English teacher. Teaching speaking and writing for this research needs two different methods and techniques, and different teaching media. Consequently, the teachers will need extra budget for these efforts.

Regardless the problems in language features done by the students, overall steps in the teaching and learning process were conducted in a good atmosphere where students were actively involved in the discussion in speaking class and in writing a text. Only a few students could not finish writing the narrative text (for answering the last three and two questions) in writing a text through reading comprehension, but all classes manage to achieve the minimum qualification score of 65.

Therefore, a successful teacher might consider at least three criteria: (1) students and teacher are actively involved in the teaching and learning process, (2) the students are well-motivated and enthusiastic to study, and (3) the mean of the students' achievement is equal or greater than 65 as the school's minimum qualification. By applying *ecolinguistics* in this research, at least, the three criteria might be fulfilled.

## Conclusion

Fulfilling the gap between national standardized competence and local area promotion in syllabi, handouts, and students' work-sheets, the teaching should adapt local subject content for each area throughout all provinces in Indonesia which consists of different societies and cultures. *Ecolinguistics* can be used to answer this problem as the students can learn to describe what they see, feel, and experience. How a teacher applies *ecolinguistics* to teach English depends on the teacher's efforts to acquire adequate vocabulary of environmental linguistic expressions from the surroundings. For this research, *ecolinguistics* is applied to the main material in teaching procedure and narrative texts with its successful results. Although it is combined with other technique of Total Physical Response Storytelling and Audio-lingual Method, the most prominent success is when the students are active and enthusiastic while discussing the objects they know well. However, *ecolinguistics* may also be applied to the opening activity in apperception or BKOF so that a teacher can still use the original material provided by the Central Government.

This action research can be followed by further researches in developing materials which consist of environmental linguistic expressions. It is also recommended for the Provincial Government of the Education and Culture to conduct an upgrading program for the English teachers to involve a culture-based learning (Panen and Team, 2016), so they can promote the local development.

## Acknowledgement

This research is funded by the Directorate General of Research and Development Strengthening, the Ministry of Research, Technology and Higher Education, No. 142/SP2H/LT/DRPM/III/2016.

## References

- Brown, H. Douglas. (2001). *Teaching by Principles. An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. New York: Longman.
- Bowen, Team. (2015). Teaching approaches: what is audiolingualism? Accessed on 15 Desember 2015 at <http://www.onestopenglish.com/methodology/methodology/teaching-approaches/teaching-approaches-what-is-audiolingualism/146488.article>.
- Decker, Beth. (2008). *Body Language: The Effectiveness of Total Physical Response Storytelling in Secondary Foreign Language Instruction*.



- <http://www.macalester.edu/educationreform/actionresearch/action%20research%20-%20beth.pdf>. Accessed on Saturday, 1 May 2014.
- Halim, Takariwati. (2013). *A study of the certification of EFL teachers in Central Kalimantan, Indonesia*.
- <http://nova.newcastle.edu.au/vital/access/manager/Repository/uon:13757/ATTACHMENT02>. Accessed on Saturday, 10 May 2014.
- Koshy, Valsa. (2007). *Action Research for Improving Practice. A Practical Guide*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.
- Luardini, M A. and Natalina Asi. (2014). Ekologi Bahasa Etnobotani Suku Dayak Ngaju 'Language Ecology of Dayak Ngaju Ethnobotany'. University of Palangka Raya
- Luardini, M. A. and Natalina Asi. (2014). An Analysis of Linguistic Competence in Writing Texts by Teachers in Palangka Raya. *International Journal of English and Education*. Volume: 3, Issue: 2, April 2014, Page: 80 – 94.
- Morris, Edward K; Nathaniel G.S.; and Deborah E.A. (2005). B. F. Skinner's contributions to applied behavior analysis. *Behav. Anal.* 2005; 28(2), p. 99 – 131. Accessed on <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2755377/>
- Panen, Paulina and Team. (2016). Pembelajaran Berbasis Budaya :Tantangan dan Peluang 'Culture-Based Learning'. *Proceeding of Unesa*. accessed on May 25 from <http://prosiding.unesa.ac.id/download/konaspi-unesa-v/91.pdf>.
- Rasna, I Wayan and Binawati, Ni Wayan S. (2012). Pemertahanan Leksikal Tanaman Obat Tradisional untuk Penyakit Anak pada Komunitas Remaja di Bali: Kajian Semantik Ekolinguistik. *Jurnal Bumi Lestari*, Vol 12, No. 1, February 2012, Page 173-187.
- The Ministry of National Education and Culture. (2013). *Buku Untuk Guru Kelas VII* 'Handouts for the Teacher of VII Graders'. Jakarta: The Ministry of National Education and Culture
- The Ministry of National Education and Culture. (2003). *Undang-Undang Sitem Pendidikan Nasional* 'National Education System Constitution'. Jakarta: The Ministry of National Education and Culture.



**Designing Appropriate English Learning Materials  
for Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking Study Program Students  
at IAIN Palopo**

**Masruddin**

*IAIN Palopo*

**Biodata**

**Masruddin** is a senior English lecturer at IAIN Palopo, South Sulawesi-Indonesia. His research interests include English Teaching and Sociolinguistics. He has a Ph.D. in Linguistics from Hasanuddin University, Makassar-Indonesia and currently teaching English Skills and sociolinguistics. He can be reached at [anthosmithstain@yahoo.com](mailto:anthosmithstain@yahoo.com).

**Abstract**

The research aimed at; 1) finding out the target need and learning needs of the Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking Study Program students at IAIN Palopo, Indonesia; 2) designing the appropriate material of the Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking Study Program students at IAIN Palopo, Indonesia. This was a research and development project. The steps of doing this research were; 1) need analysis; 2) designing syllabus; 3) designing material and first draft teaching material; 4) expert consultation; 5) trying out the material; 6) evaluation; and 7) writing the final draft. The data was analyzed by using a descriptive method in every step of the material and development research. The results of the research recommend 3 units as teaching materials namely; 1) At Syariah Bank; 2) Syariah Product; and 3) Being A Syariah Bank Officer. The materials were developed with the task-based approach and communicative approach. This research is expected to give a contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo Indonesia, especially for Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking Students.

**Keywords:** *Designing Materials, ESP, Syariah Economy and Syariah Banking*

## **Introduction**

Students of Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking at State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Palopo - Indonesia are demanded to be able to understand and communicate in English. In fact, there are still many students who have low proficiency in English. It happens since they rarely practice and they lack enough vocabulary to be able to communicate in English. In addition, they have no many chances to use and practice their skills in English. Furthermore, the available materials for students of Islamic Economic and Syariah Banking at IAIN Palopo are still in general English and mostly grammar-oriented. They need to have more specific materials on English Specific Purpose (ESP) in order to support their career in the future.

A number of researchers have argued that the teaching of ESP should meet the target learners' needs (Saragih, 2014, Gatehouse, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In addition, ESP is a learning program, in which the purposes of the course developed based on the specific needs of the target group (Richards and Schmidt, 2010; Basturkmen, 2010). ESP prepares material for the target learners to be able to use appropriate and correct English for many purposes contexts of learners' possible future professions. ESP program needs to be developed since the important of the language courses with specific contents, language skills, motivations, and processes are collaborated into specialized courses.

Therefore, this research and development on material development for Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking students are expected to help the students and the lecturers in English classroom. Hopefully, it can strengthen the students' motivation in the learning process, then it supports the profession of students in the future.

## **Methodology**

This was a research and development project. The study used ADDIE model standing for Analysis, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate (Taylor, 2004). Need analysis was conducted by distributing questionnaire and interviewing some students, alumni, lecturers, and bank clerk. Then, based on the need analysis, materials development was starting with the syllabus making and designing material. Following the analysis and materials development is expert consultation, which involves experts in material development, Syariah economic practitioners, Islamic bank clerk, and English lecturers. The consultation covers the evaluation of the content, language, and style of delivering in the teaching process. Following expert validation is the limited tryout materials. It was conducted to get feedback on the developed material, to eliminate the weaknesses. Therefore, the developed materials can meet the

intended quality. The subjects of the try-out were 20 students of Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking study program. The results of the tryout were used as basis final revision of the product.

## **Findings and Discussion**

The final product of this development is the English material for Syariah economic and Syariah banking study program. The result of need analysis shows that the target needs of students at Syariah economic and Syariah banking study program IAIN Palopo in learning is to be able to communicate in English and can be able to access information related to Islamic economic field. Furthermore, in the content of language skills, they need vocabulary exposure to increase all the main skills in English. Then, for the listening skills, they need to learn more on pronunciation. They need to have the specific topic such as Syariah banking, Islamic Marketing, Islamic economic principle, Contemporary Economic in Islam, etc, in order to increase their topic in writing about their professional career in the future.

The material has the characteristic of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Based on the need analysis, the ESP material was proposed to mostly use task-based instruction. The learners involve in tasks with integrated approach skills in English. Tasks are more focused on the meaning or the context oriented (Nunan, 1989). TBLT is appropriate to help students to solve their problem in learning. In the process of their learning, the student of Syariah economic and Syariah banking Study Program wants to have material in in speaking activities such as an interview in pairs in English. They want to have some texts in Syariah economic and Syariah banking context. Then, for writing activities they want to have some example of legal documents in English. For the listening activities, they want to have a listening material in the form of monolog and dialogue in which they should listen and find out the main ideas and main information.

The experts considered that the product was good. The experts suggested some aspect such as the color, the size of the writing, the instruction. Then, the implementation of limited tried out ran very well. The students enjoy and can understand the material and they can get some new vocabulary about banking through the materials. In addition, the experts also suggest creating more interesting designs of the book in order to catch the attention from the target learners.

The results of the research recommend 3 units as teaching materials namely: 1). At Syariah Bank; 2) Syariah Product; 3) Being A Syariah Bank Officer. The materials were developed with task-based approach and communicative approach. This research is expected

to give the contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo especially for Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking Students.

The first part of the units in the book is *let's get ready*. In this part, it presents the specific pictures which related to the topic in every unit. Those pictures describe some vocabularies related to the task that will be given in the next parts of the unit. Then in the next activity, is the vocabulary list with specific pictures. This can be a good understanding for students about the next task. Following the *let's get ready* is the *let's act* part. In this part, the first task is *listening and speaking*. The students are given activity to listen and to speak based on the economic and banking context. It also introduces some expressions that is needed in the context of economic and banking. Then next part of the *let's act* is the *reading and writing task*. In this part, some tasks with reading text and writing activities about economic and banking activities. Then, the final part of each unit of the book is reflection sheet as evaluation on the topic of the unit.

Those materials in the three units of the books show the appropriate materials with the needs of students in Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking Study Program. It has some colorful pictures of banking and economic activities. It also has a good design with appropriate order of each unit from the easier to the more difficult parts. In addition, it also has facilitated the student to communicate and interact with one another through group tasks with appropriate contextual activities. Then, this research is expected to answer the challenge to arrange the material based on the identified needs (Long, 2005) and the call of presenting the needs-based documents (Richards, 2001).

## **Conclusion**

The product of this study is English material book for Syariah economic and Syariah banking study program. The product was developed by following ADDIE. The materials of the book are 3 units as teaching materials namely 1). At Syariah Bank; 2) Syariah Product; and 3) Being A Syariah Bank Officer. The materials were developed with task-based approach and communicative approach. This research is expected to give the contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo especially for Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking Students. It is suggested for further researchers to conduct a study about the efficacy of the material.

## References

- Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan
- Dudley Evan & Maggie Jo (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes. A multi-disciplinary approach*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes*. London: Cambridge University Press.
- Lattore. (1969). *A course in Basic Scientific English*, Vol. 1. Longman
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Paltridge, B & Starfield , S (Eds). (2013). *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*. WestSussex; Wiley-Blackwell
- Richards J.C. & Schmidt, R. (2010). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (4<sup>th</sup> ed) London: Longman (Pearson Education)
- Saragih, Erikson. (2014) Designing ESP Material for Nursing Students Based on Need Analysis. *International Journal of Linguistics*.6 (4). doi: 10.5296/ijl.v6i4.5983.
- Taylor, Lyn. (2004). *Educational theories and instructional design models, their place in the simulation*. Retrieved on July 14, 2014 from [http://web.mac.com/smhsmusic/Ubos\\_Blog/EDIT\\_580/Entries/2006/8/6\\_Educationa\\_Theories\\_files/057-taylor.pdf](http://web.mac.com/smhsmusic/Ubos_Blog/EDIT_580/Entries/2006/8/6_Educationa_Theories_files/057-taylor.pdf)



## **CLIL as an Alternative Approach for Designing English Course Syllabus in Indonesia**

**Mayang Pipit**

*Linguistic Department of Indonesia University*

### **Biodata**

**Mayang Pipit** is recently pursuing her doctoral degree at Linguistics Department of Indonesia University. She is also a lecturer at the English Department of Indraprasta PGRI University Jakarta. Her area of interest is linguistics, educational linguistics, teaching English for young learner and curriculum and syllabus design. She can be reached at [mayang912@yahoo.com](mailto:mayang912@yahoo.com).

### **Abstract**

The failure of RSBI project (The Pioneering of International Standard School) in Indonesia was caused, one of them, by unavailability of science teachers who could teach that subject well in English. Although contently they have mastered the subject perfectly, they could not teach it to their students in English. Because of that, teachers were reluctant to use English as a teaching medium. Incapability of using English is caused by the lack of opportunity as they are not exposed to English in everyday communication since the status of English in Indonesia is only as a foreign language not as a second language. More artificial English environments are needed to make them more exposed to English. One of which, by creating teaching English through varied fields of study which are based on CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) concept. The paper aims to design a proto English syllabus by using CLIL approach for mathematics teachers to intensify their English performance in teaching. The syllabus is an integrated one which combines content and communicative function. The process begins with a need analysis both internally and externally. The communicative function is based on two teaching perspectives of CLIL; language for learning and language of learning. Language for learning includes opening, core, and closing session. Furthermore, language of learning is adapted from the content of specific subject used.

**Keywords:** *CLIL, syllabus design, need analysis, integrated syllabus, language for learning, language of learning*

## **Introduction**

The status of English in Indonesia is as a foreign language. It is taught as a local content that is can be an optional subject (at elementary level). Besides foreign languages, there are about 700 local languages were spoken here. It makes Indonesian students have a limited opportunity to speak and listen English in their everyday communication. Hence, more artificial English environments are needed to make them more exposed to English. One of which, by creating teaching English through varied fields of study which are based on CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) concept. This approach has been introduced on the middle of 1960s in Canada and North America. It refers to the immersion model which teaches certain subjects by using second/foreign language as instruction medium and can be categorized as a content-based approach.

## **Literature review**

The project of RSBI/SBI, in fact, is in line with the principal of CLIL which fuses certain subject and language. CLIL is demanded by many countries since it could reach two educational purposes in one step. It will accelerate students' ability in a certain subject and language. It is able to stimulate cognitive and motivation aspect, as well as help students to acquire a target language in a naturalistic environment. "It is the naturalness which appears to be one of the major platforms for CLIL's importance and success in relation to both language and other subject learning" (Mars, 2000).

Dalton-Puffer (2007) also propose 4 advantages of CLIL that are appropriate to SLA concepts; 1) creates conditions for naturalistic language learning, 2) provides a purpose for language use in the classroom, 3) has a positive effect on language learning by emphasizing on meaning rather than form, and 4) drastically increases the amount of exposure to the target language. Those principals are fit to syllabus design since teachers need English for teaching mathematics which apply immersion concept as contained in CLIL approach.

In this research, adjunct model is chosen because teachers are 40 years on the average, language is taught in parallel focused on science development and certain skill to get the Language teaching that is based on CLIL includes 3 perspectives which are related each other (Tryptych; Coyle, Hood, and Marsh, 2010); 1) language of learning which is needed to access



basic concept (core session that is focused on vocabulary and grammar), 2) language for learning that is used to communicate in the target language (the opening and closing session and used for giving instruction to students in both session as communicative function activity), 3) language through learning which is acquired by students individually, concept, skill, and strategy. The development of CLIL language is carried out systematically through a continuous recycling in the individual communication and not through teaching grammatical aspect without context. higher level of thinking. The specific purpose is teaching mathematics in English.

Syllabus is also designed by referring to an integrated syllabus which combined content-based syllabus with functional syllabus (Richards, 2001). Mathematics topics are used as a basis to perform language and do the communicative function in class. Communicative function consists of a set of learning activities that are going to be achieved through integrating content and language. In the first syllabus, communicative needs is represented through a set of communicative function which is included in opening, core, and closing session. It includes session of teaching, communicative function, vocabulary, grammar, and class language. The second, includes topics of content and their language aspects. It consists of 5 parts; class, topics of content, function, vocabulary and grammar.

## **Methodology**

Mix method is used for this research; qualitative is applied to analyze the data which is subjective and relative and quantitative is used for objective data. Through this method, one can be optimized the other (Green, Gracelli, and Graham in Craswell, 2007, p. 18)

The informants were principal, curriculum coordinator teacher, and 6 mathematics teachers. 48 students (grade 7, 8 and 9) were involved as respondents. The data were also gained from mathematics syllabus and textbooks, teachers' speaking test and listening. Data were collected by using some elicitation devices (Nunan dan Bailey, 2009), such as questionnaire, interview, class observation, test, and the analysis of written documents.

## **Findings and discussion**

### ***Teachers' English proficiency level has not been adequate yet***

The result of teachers' speaking test showed 80% teachers were on 20-30 TSE rating scale (no effective communication). For listening test, 75% teachers were on 2 scale, intermittent user (no real communication is possible except for the most basic information using isolated words).

Communicative competence for present situation was divided into opening, core and closing session and most of teachers were less on close session (66.67). Relating to content vocabularies, 50% teachers had enough ability (good). For grammar, only 25% had a good scale. The ability of teachers in teaching all mathematics topics in English was still very less. Most of teachers (83%) were on very less scale in teaching 8 and 9 grade topics.

According to students, teachers still used Indonesian in teaching. When teachers used English to explain the topics, only 6.25% students understood very well. The teachers' pronunciation were unclear (54.17%) hence, 95.82% students said they were not really satisfied with the teachers' answers.

Target situation showed speaking was the most important skill which should be developed. Teachers also needed to master class language about opening session (66.6%). Students wanted teachers to speak English more in the class (50%).

Deficiency analysis shows the difference between desirable English competence and teachers' existing competence. Teachers' English competence was far from the expectation. Proponent factors analysis showed the institution had enough facilities to support that program. Conversely, the obstacle factors were seen from factors which hampered the teaching process and learning, for examples lack of pronunciation and less of understanding students' question (8.33%) and not confident (83.33%).

Lastly, language audit is intended to uncover required language aspects which are needed by mathematics teacher in teaching such as class language, vocabulary, and grammar.

### **CLIL as an alternative approach**

CLIL can fulfill the needs of teachers, since it has two focuses; language and content. Contently teachers have already mastered the subject perfectly but they do not have enough ability to teach it in English. The content could be used as a means to activate and motivate their communication. Hopefully, by using it as teaching materials through 'artificial environment', teachers' English competence can be accelerated. There is not a standard CLIL model that can be applied in any situation, because in implementation level the approach needs to be adapted based on the educational environment where it is applied. Adjunct CLIL is used since the students were 40 years all approximately who use English for teaching mathematics.

### **An integrated syllabus**

English course syllabus is designed by referring to an integrated syllabus which combined content-based syllabus with functional syllabus. Content (mathematics topics) are used as a basis to perform language and do the communicative function in class. Communicative function consists of a set of learning activities that are going to be achieved through integrating content and language.

Under CLIL concept, syllabus design is based on a need analysis internally and externally. Internally, six types of needs analysis are target and present situation, deficiency analysis, proponent and obstacle factors, and language audit. Externally, it is supported by the analysis of mathematics syllabus and textbook for the sake of syllabus content. Both are combined together as the references of a proto syllabus design. Proto is a syllabus which is focused on content. Components that should be considered such as specification of topics, communicative function, variation of language, discourse and rhetorical skill, communicative activities, grammar and vocabulary. The examples of both syllabuses can be seen below.

Table 1: the example of proto syllabus based on language for learning

Stage	Function	Vocabulary	Structure	Classroom language
Opening	- Greeting students	Related words	- Simple sentence	- Good morning
	- Starting lesson		- Compound sentence	- everyone, how are you?
	- Checking attendance		- Complex sentence	- Hi everybody
	- Checking homework		- Imperative sentence	- Did you have a good weekend?
	- Reviewing the previous lesson		- Interrogative sentence	- Let's start the lesson
	- Brainstorming		- Simple present	- Let's take
	- Stating topic		- Simple past	- attendance, shall we?
			- Simple present continuous	- Who's absent today?
			- Modals	- etc

Table 2: the example of proto syllabus based on language of learning

Class	Topic	Function	Vocabulary	Structure
VII	Integers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Using negative number</li> <li>- Drawing integers in a number line</li> <li>- Comparing integers</li> <li>- Putting integers in a sequence</li> <li>- Calculating mentally</li> <li>- Estimating the result of operation of integers</li> <li>- Explaining characteristics of operations of integers</li> <li>- Explaining square, power of three, square and cubic root</li> </ul>	Related terms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Numbers and mathematical symbols</li> <li>- Word classes</li> <li>- Simple sentence</li> <li>- Negative and interrogative sentence</li> <li>- Imperative</li> <li>- Simple present</li> <li>- Simple past tense</li> <li>- Simple future</li> <li>- etc</li> </ul>

## Conclusion

Syllabus design based on CLIL concept in this research is an attempt to intensify the English competence and performance of mathematics teachers in teaching. A deep analysis which is done toward internal and external needs of teachers is expected to reveal their real needs as well as give an alternative solution to their problems that are related to teaching mathematics in English.

## References

- Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design, choosing among five approaches*. (2<sup>nd</sup> edition) London: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Creswell, J.W. (2007). *Research design, qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. . (2nd edition) London: Sage Publication, Inc.
- Coyle, D., P. Hood., and D. Marsh. (2010). *CLIL content and language integrated*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) classroom*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus designs*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nunan and K. M. Bailey. (2009). *Exploring second language classroom research*. Boston: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Richards, C. J. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Robinson, P. C. (1991). *ESP today: practitioner's guide*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International.

Yalden, J. (1987). *The communicative syllabus: evolution, design and implementation*.  
London: Prentice-Hall International

## Effect of Medical English on Students' General English Proficiency

Mohammad Reza Kooroghli<sup>a</sup>, Samad Sajjadi<sup>b,\*</sup>, and Forough Rahimi<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup>English Translation and Literature Department, Islamic Azad University, Parand Branch;

E-mail: [mkooroghli@piaau.ac.ir](mailto:mkooroghli@piaau.ac.ir)

<sup>b</sup>English Language Department, College of Paramedical Sciences, Shahid Beheshti

University of Medical Sciences, Tehran E-mail: [samad\\_sajadi@sbmu.ac.ir](mailto:samad_sajadi@sbmu.ac.ir)

<sup>c</sup>English Language Department, College of Paramedical Sciences, Shahid Beheshti

University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, E-mail [rahimi.forough@yahoo.com](mailto:rahimi.forough@yahoo.com)

### Abstract

This study was to find out if medical English language courses could improve students' general English proficiency, in addition to their special English. To this end, 30 medical students took part in a longitudinal three-credit course instruction, lasting for 16 weeks. The students had already practiced English at junior and senior high school as part of their curriculum requirement. Before the start of course instructions, the students took a medical English test and a general English test, serving as pretests with reliability estimates of 0.71 and 0.63. Then they received the course instructions lasting for 16 weeks. The instructions specifically focused on medical English. At the end of instructions, on week 17, the students took the posttests which were identical versions of the pretests. The time interval between the pretest and posttest was long enough to remove the memory effect from the pretests. A set of statistical computations, including t-tests, were carried out to compare students scores on the pre- and post tests. According to the results, there were significant improvements in learners' both medical and general English test scores (with  $t=4.45$ ,  $p<0.001$ , and  $t=3.84$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) although, in line with the course objective, the classroom instructions and text materials were exclusively medically focused. This implies that ESP instructions can significantly improve learners' overall linguistic competence, no matter whether the instructions are professionally oriented or generally focused. In other words, the learning skills that EFL learners bring to the

---

\* Corresponding Author: [samad\\_sajadi@sbmu.ac.ir](mailto:samad_sajadi@sbmu.ac.ir)

task permit them to go beyond their course specific materials to generalize their learning to a wider language spectrum, with EGP being the main beneficiary.

## **Introduction**

Medical English, an important sub-branch of English for special purposes (ESP), differs from general English in numerous ways (Davoodifard & EslamiRasekh, 2005). The most important difference is the learners and their purposes for learning English. Students in Medical English courses are supposed to be reasonably familiar with English for general purposes (EGP) and, accordingly, in their ESP classes, they are subjected to professional English taken from their specific field of study (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). The main intention of the medical English or ESP course is to develop different job-related communication skills (Belcher, 2006). As such, Medical English courses, like any other ESP courses, rely on authentic, need-oriented, instructional materials, with class activities dealing with learners' professional needs for which English is required (Belcher, 2004).

To this end, Medical English and ESP courses mainly concentrate on language in context than on teaching grammar and language structures. The rationale is that English should not be abstracted from learners' own field of study; rather, it should be related to, or directly come from, the subject area of their field of study (Belcher, 2006; Mohan, 1986). In terms of communication skills also ESP instruction may not be similar to EAP. While EAP courses may equally focus on the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing, the ESP courses, including medical English, choose their skills based on the needs analysis results carried out before the administration of such courses (Sajjadi et al., 2012; Basturkmen, 2010; Gatehouse, 2001; Robinson, 1991).

Medical English courses in Iran, like other ESP courses, view reading as the most essential linguistic need for EFL learners pursuing their higher education in different academic fields. Accordingly, Medical English and other ESP courses mainly focus on the development of reading comprehension skills in learners (Moslemi, 2011). The reason is that, good reading skill in English would enable the students to get access to and read an invaluable wealth of written information available in English worldwide. To this end, the course syllabi, developed and recommended by the relevant education authorities in Iran, view reading as the main comprehension skill in English that the students need to master. As such, a big majority of textbooks and course materials, serving as text materials for ESP and EGP courses, are primarily reading oriented (Ajideh, 2011).

Nonetheless, in terms of content, as indicated above, the ESP and EGP are significantly different; the ESP content, including medical English, is about students' field of study or their future profession while the EGP content deals with general academic language or everyday communication encounters. If so, then the question is whether or not a medical English class, as a significant sub-branch of ESP, with field specific content, can improve learners' general English. The issue has not been systematically investigated yet but, to the author's experience, medical English classes, with field-specific course content, could enhance students' overall command of English, including their EGP. This claim may contradict the overtly alleged ESP course objectives which are intended to enhance the participants' field-specific linguistic skills (e.g. Dudley-Evans, 2001). To the author, however, the claim warrants systematic investigation because if medical English, a sub-branch of ESP, could improve EFL learners' overall command of English, including their EGP, then why to invest huge financial resources for two distinct types of courses – commonly referred to as ESP and EGP. So to find out whether a medically oriented course could similarly enhance EFL learners' general and special English, the following hypothesis was postulated.

- Field-specific instructional materials can significantly improve EFL learners' both special English and general English.

## **Method**

### **Participants**

Participants were 33 medical students (29 girls and 4 boys) taking their medical English course at the Medical College of Islamic Azad University, in Tehran. They were in their second semester of medical education and, as part of their curriculum requirement, they all had to pass a three credit medical English (ESP) course. The course, preceded by a three-credit general English course offered in their first semester, was an obligatory, three-credit course.

The participants had already developed a basic knowledge of English at high school, followed by some further instructions in their general English course. Their command of English could roughly be considered high intermediate. So with a rather suitable command of English, they could handle a broad range of topics, yet with some difficulties. So they still made mistakes, while communicating in English, but the mistakes they made did not significantly hinder their ability to communicate.



### **Pretest and Posttest materials**

Two different sets of test items, a "general English test" and a "special English test" served as the test materials of the study. The tests were administered two times: once as "pre-test", at the beginning of the semester, and once as "posttest", five months later, at the end of the semester. The time interval between the pretest and the posttest was long enough, i.e. five months, to account for memory effect.

The two test booklets, i.e. the general English and the special English tests, were similar in format – multiple choice – but very different in content. The general English exam dealt with vocabulary items and comprehension passages of every-day life issues, but the Special English test dealt with subject-specific, medical topics.

### **Procedure**

At the start of the semester, the participants met in a spacious class in their Medical School to take the pretest exams. To account for order effect, the exams were administered in two successive days. The students had 60 minutes to answer the questions for each exam. A week after the exam, the students took part in their special English classes, lasting for 17 weeks. On week 18, they took the same tests, serving as the study's post-tests, in two successive days.

The three credits ESP course lasted for 17 weeks, each week with three hours of instruction, in two successive sessions in the same day, separated by 30 minutes break time to avoid class boredom. The reason for two sessions a day per week was the distance and commuting problems in Tehran for both the instructor and the students. The course book was "Fitzgerald, et al. (2010), *English for Medicine in Higher Education Studies*. The course instructions were accompanied by numerous quizzes and achievement tests, as is common in skill-oriented language courses.

### **Data Analysis and Results**

T-tests were used to compare students' scores on the pretests and posttests. According to the results (tables 1 and 2 below), students achieved significant score gains on both the medical English and general English tests, with  $t=4.55$ ,  $p<0.001$  for the former and  $t=3.87$ ,  $p<0.001$  for the latter, although the instructions exclusively dealt with medical English.

Table1. Paired sample t-test of the pre and post-test scores (Medical English)

Test Condition	N	Mean	SE	SD	Lower	Upper	t	Sig
Pretest	33	11.59	1.37	7.92	8.10	3.09	4.55	P<0.001
Posttest	33	17.90	1.70	9.79				

Table 2.Paired sample t-test of the pre and post-test scores (General English)

Test Condition	N	Mean	SE	SD	Lower	Upper	t	Sig
Pretest	33	15.01	2.11	12.17	10.89	3.35	3.87	P<0.001
Posttest	33	22.13	2.14	12.32				

## Discussion

According to the results, there were significant improvements in learners' both medical and general English although, in line with the course objective, the classroom instructions and text materials were exclusively medically focused. This implies that EFL instructions can significantly improve learners' overall linguistic competence, no matter whether the instructions are professionally oriented or generally focused. In other words, the learning skills that ESP learners bring to the task permit them to go beyond their course specific materials to generalize their learning to a wider language spectrum, with EGP being the main beneficiary.

The results are in line with Ahmadi's (2003), study that sought to find out whether there was a significant relationship between the test scores of the examinees taking medical English and general English tests under similar conditions. According to his results, the examinees' ESP test scores positively correlated (71%) with their EGP scores, indicating that ESP tests could serve as an adequate measure of EFL learners' general English competency and vice versa. Such results may indirectly support the findings of current study. That is, positive correlation between ESP and EGP test results could imply a rather similar link between ESP and EGP learning outcome, as indicated in this study.

The positive impact of subject specific instructions on EFL learners' medical and general English seems to be linguistically justifiable too. As Maleki (2008) indicates, ESP courses could become highly motivating by combining subject matter and English language teaching because, this way, students are able to use the vocabulary and structures that they learn in a meaningful context which is composed of their subject-matter and content for the teaching of relevant skills; this gives them the context they need to understand the English of the classroom quite efficiently. As such, the teacher can make the most of the students' knowledge of the subject matter, thus helping them develop their overall command of English faster – no matter whether it is their general or special command of English.

Another reason for positive impact of ESP instructions on learners' general English could be the teaching experience from general English courses. ESP teachers have already accumulated a wealth of experience in general English courses. They would exploit their background in language teaching to teach ESP courses. By exploiting such competencies in ESP classroom, they can indeed help learners to improve their overall command of English for both special and general English.

The results could also be accounted for by the common linguistic feature available in medical English and general English courses. With such link in mind, in their ESP courses, curriculum developers have paid special attention to general English content and the 'common core' of English language. In his ESP course design Gatehouse (2001), for example, integrated general English language content and acquisition skills when developing the curriculum for language preparation for employment in the health sciences. In an ESP course for employees at the American University of Beirut, Shaaban (2005) included the 'common core' of the English language in the curriculum. Likewise, Chen (2006) stressed the significance of considering a 'common core' of English language needs and a proper selection of discourse and genres to meet 'specific' needs. Anthony (1997) suggested team teaching with a general English teacher in ESP courses.

To recap, medical English, an important sub-branch of ESP, has a lot in common with general English. ESP learners, in their medical English courses, are constantly expanding their linguistic repertoire by becoming more fluent in different components of the language under instruction, and adjusting their linguistic behavior to new situations or new roles applicable to both ESP and EGP contexts. Hence, the curriculum developers need to consider the constructive link between medical English and general English courses, when planning for and formulating different language courses. Likewise, EFL teachers need to adopt a dynamic

perspective in improving their methodology for the ESP and EGP classroom in light of the new insights taken from current research findings.

## References

- Ahmadi, M. (2003). Can ESP be tested by EGP? *Journal of Medical Education*. 3: 7-10.
- Ajideh, P. (2011). EGP or ESP Test for Medical Fields of Study. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*. 5: 19-37.
- Anthony, L. (1997). *Defining English for specific purposes and the role of the ESP Practitioner*; Retrieved Feb. 24, 2016 from: <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/abstracts/Aizukiyo97.pdf>
- Basturkmen, H.( 2010). *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*. New York: Palgrave.
- Belcher, D. (2006). English for specific purposes: Teaching to perceived needs and imagined futures in worlds of work, study and everyday life. *TESOL Quarterly*. 40:133-156.
- Belcher, D. (2004). Trends in teaching English for specific purposes. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press. 24: 165-186.
- Chen, Y. (2006). From the common core to specific. *Asian ESP Journal*; 1: 1-27 Retrieved Feb. 18, 2016 from: <http://www.the-asian-esp-journal-june-2006-volume-1/>
- Davoodifard, M. & EslamiRasekh, A. (2005). Evaluating text types: Genre-based differences in the syntactic and lexical characteristics of discipline-specific texts. In: Kiany G, R, Khayyamdar M. editors. *Proceedings of the First National ESP/EAP Conferences*, 17.
- Dudley-Evans, T. ( 2001). Team-teaching in EAP: Changes and adaptations in the Birmingham approach. In Flowerdew J, Peacock M. editors. *Research Perspectives on English for Academic Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp: 225-238.
- Fitzgerald, P., McCullagh M, Wright R. (2010). *English for Medicine in Higher Education Studies*, England. Garnet Education.
- Gatehouse, K. ( 2001). Key issues in English for Specific purposes (ESP) curriculum development. *Internet TESL Journal* 7. Retrieved Feb. 15, 2016 from: <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Gatehouse-ESP.html>
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Maleki, A. (2008). ESP teaching: A matter of controversy. *ESP World*; 17:1-21. Retrieved Feb.22, 2016 from: [http://www.esp-world.info/Articles\\_17/PDF/ESP%20Teaching%20Iran.pdf](http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_17/PDF/ESP%20Teaching%20Iran.pdf)

- Mohan, B.A. (1986). *Language and Content*. Reading: MA, Addison-Wesley.
- Moslemi, F. (2011). ESP needs analysis of Iranian MA students: A case study of the University of Isfahan. *English Language Teaching*; 4:121-129. Retrieved Feb 9, 2016 from: <http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/elt/article/view/13363/9238>
- Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP Today: A Practitioner's Guide*. Hemel Hemstead: Prentice Hall.
- Sajjadi S., Ahmadi, M., Heidarpour, M., Salahiyekta, A., Khadembashi, N., Rafatbakhsh, M., (2012). The effect of in-service English education on medical professionals' language proficiency. *J. Res. Med. Sci.*17: 190-116.
- Shaaban, K. (2005). An ESP course for employees at the American University of Beirut. *ESP World*; 4: 2-10). Retrieved Feb. 25, 2016 from: [http://www.esp-world.info/Articles\\_10.htm](http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_10.htm).



## **The Potential Benefits of Internet-Based Learning in Thai EFL Context**

**Patoomporn Chairat**

*Rajamangala University of Technology Isan Sakon Nakhon Campus, Thailand*

### **Biodata**

**Patoomporn Chairat** has a M.A. in English from Khon Kaen University, Thailand and currently teaches English at Rajamangala University of Technology Isan Sakon Nakhon Campus, Thailand. Her research interests include World Englishes, language acquisition, sociolinguistics and CALL. She can be reached at [patoomporn.ch@rmuti.ac.th](mailto:patoomporn.ch@rmuti.ac.th)

### **Abstract**

In the age of digital technology, it is difficult to distinguish our everyday life activity from technology. The best way to do is to live with the technology and use it ingeniously. For many years, it has been proposed that Internet-based learning (IBL) can be a good choice for adult learners for learning by themselves outside classroom. Therefore, this is an attempt to implement and describe the effects of IBL in an EFL course. In this study, a social networking site was selected to be the medium for EFL training. At the first stage, the Internet and social networking usage habits of 78 Thai university students were investigated to find the potential of IBL. The results revealed that the students can participate in the IBL activities. At the second stage, the students were trained about some grammatical points from their lessons through the social networking. The second report shown that the students were active and had a great motivation to practice English through the social networking. This is a good sign for integrating IBL in the EFL classroom.

**Keywords:** *Internet-Based Learning, Social Network, ELT, Thailand*

## **1. Introduction**

Internet-based learning (IBL) is beneficial to adult learners (Lyman, 1999). In the last ten years, there were many websites and mobile applications were developed with some features that can assist language learning. In Thailand, Facebook is also the most popular social network services in Thailand with around 30 million active users per month, and 28 million users logging on via their mobile phone (Syndacast, 2015). Consequently, there were some teachers and researchers utilizing these Internet technology in EFL classroom.

Therefore, this study was design to extend the understanding in using Facebook in an English for a foreign language (EFL) classroom. In this study, Facebook using habits of Thai EFL students were investigated to describe the students' characteristics (Yu, 2014) before joining some activities on Facebook. In addition, this study aimed to investigate students' feedback after participating the activities on Facebook.

## **Literature Review**

Mazman and Usluel (2010) said that “educational use of Facebook has a significant positive relationship with its use for communication, collaboration and resource or material sharing (p.451)”.

Jong, Lai, Hsia, Lin & Liao (2014) presented that the peer discussion of educational matters was ranked at the forth place out of seven motives for Facebook use, after relationship maintenance, pass time and entertainment. Furthermore, Jong & et.al. asked the participants to compare Facebook with bulletin board system and e-learning. The results revealed that Facebook was more convenient in sharing educational resources and interacting with other users. Moreover, Facebook offered immediate learning opportunities as soon as teachers posted on Facebook. Course designers and curriculum developers should put more emphasis on teachers-students interaction via online channel by integrating more social media activities on their teaching materials and course syllabus (Grosseck, Bran & Tiru, 2011; Aydin, 2014)

Yu (2014) presented about the great advantage of Facebook is multimedia presentation. Facebook is easy to use and make the users more enjoyable with multimedia sharing. Moreover, Facebook provides the automatically notifications for the users as soon as there is a post posted in a group that they are the members or there is someone commenting on the post. Therefore, they can keep in touch with the teacher and their classmates easily.

## Methodology

This study was conducted in the subject 'English for Daily Life Communication' in first semester of the academic year 2015. The participants of this study were 78 undergraduate students of the Industry and Technology Faculty, Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Sakhon Nakhon Campus. The participants were selected by purposive sampling method. The participants enrolled in 3 sections of 2 lectures who were interesting in integrating Facebook into EFL classrooms. In this study, two research instruments were conducted. Firstly, a questionnaire about Facebook using habits of undergraduate students was conducted. Secondly, a questionnaire about students' feedback on the extra activities on Facebook was conducted.

## Findings and discussion

The results from the survey questionnaire shown that 100% of the respondents said that they had a Facebook account. 44.87% of the respondents logging into Facebook via their mobile phone, 14.10% of the respondents logging into Facebook via their computer, and 41.03% of the respondents said that they used both computer and mobile phone for logging into Facebook.

Next, the results from the survey questionnaire shown that 82.05% of the respondents said that they check their Facebook every day, and 17.95% of the respondents said that they didn't check their Facebook every day. For those who said that they didn't check their Facebook everyday answered that they check their Facebook 3-6 days per week. 37.08% of the respondents going on their Facebook around 1-3 hours, 33.34% of the respondents going on their Facebook around 4-6 hours, 12.82% of the respondents said that they went on their Facebook around 7-9 hours, 7.69% of the respondents said that they went on their Facebook around 10-12 hours, and 8.97% of the respondents said that they went on their Facebook more than 12 hours.

Finally, the results from the survey questionnaire shown that 70.51% of the respondents said that they didn't have problems with their internet access, and 29.49% of the respondents said that they have some problems with their internet access.

The results of the questionnaire revealed that Facebook was suitable for being a tool for learning English outside classroom ( $\bar{x} = 4.23$ ). And most of the participants said that they liked the extra activities on Facebook ( $\bar{x} = 4.15$ ). In addition, the participants agreed that the extra



activity encourage you to learn English by yourself ( $\bar{x} = 3.96$ ) as well as encourage you to learn English outside classroom ( $\bar{x} = 4.06$ ).

According to the research results, we could said that Facebook and Internet is being a part of the students' life. They spend many hours on Facebook every day. As a result, using Internet-based learning approach could be an alternative way for compensating limited time of formal classroom from 2-3 hours per week to unlimited learning time. Therefore, English teachers could consider this information for their English course syllabus design. However, teachers should give some advices for using Facebook properly for the students. When integrating Facebook in an EFL classroom, the results were relatively positive. It was relevant to Jong & et.al. (2014) that Facebook had a potential educational value. However, learning English outside classroom have to realize on students' autonomy. The activities should be design for supporting individual creativity that allow the students creating their own work as well as reflect their own language skills.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, the social networks could be a part of second language learning activities. However, the teachers should consider many factor when designing the activities such as the ability to access the internet of the students, the adequate time to interact with the students, the participation of the students as well as the learning styles of the students. If there is not much barriers, integrating Facebook in EFL classroom must be potentially beneficial.

## References

- Aydin, S. (2014). Foreign Language Learners' interactions with their teachers on Facebook. *System*, 42 (2014), 155-163.
- Grosseck, G., Bran, R. & Tiru, L. (2011). Dear teacher, what should I write on my wall? A case study on academic uses of Facebook, *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15(2011), 1425-1430.
- Hung, T. W., A Data Mining Case Study in the Underwear Industry for CRM Applications, *Proceedings of the 2006 International Conference on Business and Information*, CD-Format, Singapore, July 12-14, 2006.
- Jong, B., Lai, C., Hsia, Y., Lin, T. & Liao, Y. (2014). An Exploration of the Potential Educational Value of Facebook. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 32 (2014), 201 – 211.

- Lyman, B. 1999. Internet-based Learning: What's in it for the Adult Learners? In: Internet Based Learning: An Introduction and Framework for Higher Education and Business. Ed: French, D. et. al. London: Kogan Page.
- Mazman, S.G. & Usluel, Y.K. (2010). Modeling Educational Usage of Facebook, *Computer & Education*, 55 (2010), 444-453.
- Saylag, R. (2013). Facebook as a Tool in Fostering EFL Teachers' Establishment of Interpersonal Relations with Students through Self-Disclosure. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 82(2013), 680-685.
- Syndacast. 2015. *Online Marketing Thailand: The State of Social Media*. Retrieved from <http://syndacast.com/infographic-online-marketing-thailand-the-state-of-social-media/> [5 November 2015].
- Yu, L. (2014). A case study of using Facebook in an EFL English writing class: The perspective of a writing teacher. *JALTcalljournal*, 10(3), 189-202.



## **The Effect of Asset Based Thinking (ABT) Method on the Students' Speaking Ability in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom: A Study of Biology Students at STKIP Bima**

**Sulistia Indah**

*Postgraduate English Education Department Mataram University*

*A Lecturer at STKIP Bima*

*e-mail: [sulistia\\_indah@yahoo.co.id](mailto:sulistia_indah@yahoo.co.id)*

### **Biodata**

STKIP Bima is one of Private Universities in Bima, which plays an important role in education. Based on the observation during the teaching and learning process, it was found that students are less confident to practice their speaking ability and students have low motivation in practicing their English speaking ability. Furthermore, the research aimed to determine the effect of ABT integrated into CLT classroom on the students' speaking ability and to investigate the effectiveness of ABT integrated into classroom in increasing students' speaking ability. The True Experimental Design was used in collecting data by using probability random sampling from the population. The quantitative and qualitative analysis were applied in analyzing the data. There were three variables in this research, one dependent variable, two independent variables and one intervening variable. The score of students on their speaking ability was considered as a dependent variable. The application of ABT integrated into classroom (experimental group) and the application of CLT approach (control class) were independent variables, and the students' motivation was considered as an intervening variable. There were 60 students used as the sample of this research. ANACOVA analysis was applied in analyzing the data of interaction between *co-Varian* (pre- test) and *fixed factor* (method variable), and analysis of *co- variant*. Through the analysis, it was found that the students' speaking ability's score after they were taught by using ABT integrated CLT was 260.30 while, the score of students' speaking ability after they were taught by using was CLT 226.13. The result shows that the students' speaking ability's score after they were taught by using ABT integrated CLT was higher than the score before they were taught by using CLT. It can be

concluded that teaching speaking by integrating ABT with CLT classroom is more effective in increasing students' speaking ability rather than teaching by using CLT. In investigating the effect of ABT integrating with CLT classroom, Tests of *Between- Subject Effect* was conducted. Through the analysis, it was found that if the students were not taught by using ABT integrated into, their speaking ability would be 91.360 lower compared to the students, which were taught by using ABT integrated into. Thus, it can be concluded that there was an effect of ABT integrated with CTL on the students' speaking ability improvement. From the analysis it can be concluded that there is a correlation between the students' speaking ability and ABT integrated into, there is a difference between the students' speaking ability, that were taught by using ABT integrated into and the students' speaking ability, that were taught by using CLT, the students' speaking ability that weretaught by using ABT integrated into would significantly increase rather than students' speaking ability that were taught by using CLT.

**Keywords:** *Asset Based Thinking (ABT) Method, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom, Students' Speaking Ability.*

## 1. Introduction

Teachers Training and Education College (STKIP) Bima is one of the private universities in Bima which plays an important role in education. It has more than thousand students annually. It has seven major study programs including, Mathematic, Biology, Physics, Economy, Sociology, Counseling, and Chemistry. In this institute, English is taught only in one semester that is, in the first semester, for some major and in the second semester for others. Thus, the lecturer only has few times to develop students' ability in speaking English.

Based on the observation during the teaching and learning process in the three study programs (Biology, Mathematics, and Counseling); it was found that the students' abilities, motivations, and curiosities in learning English varies especially in speaking skill. Some students had enough ability to speak but, they were anxious to speak and worry of making mistakes in pronunciation, some students were having enough motivation to learn and speak English but they lack enough vocabulary and they preferred to be silent.

As solutions, an appropriate strategy, method or approach of teaching in encouraging and increasing students' motivation, ability and curiosity in learning English should be produced. Asset Based Thinking (ABT) is proposed as one of the methods that can be used in motivating the students to increase their speaking skill. In 2011, the method was used as a pilot method in motivating Mathematics students to improve their speaking ability. ABT Method

focuses on how lecturer motivated the students to find their strength (potential, skills, knowledge and ability) and how they use the strength as an asset in reaching their learning target. Asset Based Thinking method was applied in this study program in order, to increase the students' ability in speaking English. In this research, the implementation of Asset Based Thinking (ABT) was integrated with Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) classroom. CLT is one of an appropriate approach in teaching speaking as it emphasizes on students' communicative ability, which is conducted through discussion, simulation, role-play, etc, while ABT was used to increasing students' motivation in learning. These issues were the reason why ABT and CLT were used in the research to increase the students' speaking ability.

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1 Speaking Ability**

Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty (1985: 101) stated that successful learners should be able to produce their thought in a way that will make their message accessible to native speaker. In conducting the research about speaking ability, it refers to some studies that focused on developing and improving students' speaking ability in learning English. Oradee, Thanyalak (2012) conducted about developing students' speaking skills using Communicative Activities (discussion, problem-solving, and role playing). The data taken from the speaking test and students' attitude toward teaching English speaking while qualitative data were drawn from a Learning log, a semi-structured interview and a teacher's Journal. Yafi, M Ali (2009) also conducted a study about students' speaking ability by using Class Action Research (CAR). The data were collected by giving a TOEFL Test to get the information about the students' speaking skill, observing the implementation of the previous method being implemented, interviewing the implementation of the previous method in teaching speaking, and discussing with another English teachers. Kayi, Hayriye (2006) promoted some activities that could increase students' speaking ability, such as discussion, simulation, role play, information gaps, brain storming, story telling, interview, story completion, reporting, playing card, picture narrating, picture describing, and find the differences.

## **2.2 Studies on Asset Based Thinking (ABT) Method**

Ellof and Ebersohn (2001) conducted research about Asset Based Approach for Psychological Support. The purpose of the research was, to find similarities and differences between four schools those used asset based method as an instrument in teaching to enhance psychological support. The data were collected through participants' verbatim quotation, visual data and extract from their research journal. Odyssey is the first school in Austin to be certified as a training school for the Asset-Based Thinking program. The faculty, staff and students were asked to use Asset Based Thinking during the learning process. It taught students strategies to focus consistently on what is working and what is possible, and to find the great qualities and strengths in themselves and each other.

The implementation of Asset Based Instruction also becomes a priority in Boston Public School can to improve the quality of the teaching and learning. The using of Asset based instruction is based on the assumption that many marginalized students believe that they were bad or poor at math in general. It was focused on the teachers' and students' strengths, provides a cultural shift in the way teachers interact with one another and with their students which research shows lead to positive self- efficacy and improvement in performance.

## **2.3 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach**

Efrizal, Dedy (2012), about improving students' speaking through Communicative Language Teaching Method. Vongxay, Hongkham (2013), also conducted a study of the implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in an English Department in a Lao Higher Educational Institution. It explored the understandings and attitudes of English teachers in adopting a CLT approach into their classrooms, the factors that promote or hinder EFL teachers' implementation of this teaching approach into Lao higher educational institutions English classrooms and examined the syllabi that influence them in teaching communicative English. This qualitative research investigated the perceptions of English teachers.

## **2.4 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Classroom integrated with Other Method.**

Hubbell, K. Kusano (2012) shared his experience when teaching using CLT in private Japanese universities, which, was influenced by *Buddhist*, thought which said that you could not really know *Buddhism* unless you practice it. It relates to the language, people might have knowledge of grammar, rules vocabularies but they cannot say that they know English unless they use or practice it. In his experience, Hubbell integrated the Zen into CLT. *Zen Buddhist* is one of *Buddhism sect* that use the most direct way of teaching. They claimed that wisdom is

not knowledge and that truth cannot be learned but must be experience. Teaching English through communicative strategy would give the students a chance to improve their speaking skill.

Wang, Chaochang (2002) delineated a sociolinguistic attitude, function, pedagogy, and learner beliefs and the using of Grammar- translation and communicative based method. The participants were asked to respond to a one-page survey about their beliefs regarding English teaching and learning. The interviewed data were transcribed verbatim, field notes, and the survey responded were analyzed.

### **3. Research Method**

#### **3.1 Participants**

The participants of the research were students of Biology at STKIP Bima Grade II class A and B in Academic Year 2014/ 2015. There were 60 students those have low motivation in learning and practicing their speaking ability used as the participants of this research.

#### **3.2 Data Collection Instrument**

##### **3.2.1 Questionnaires of Students' Pre- Activities and Post Activities**

In finding the data about the students' activities during the learning process, the observation about the students' activities were performed. The observations were conducted before and after the students were taught by using ABT integrated into classroom. The instruments used in this observation were pre-activities observation instrument and post-activities observation instrument. A pre-activities observation was given to find the data about the students' activities during the learning process before they were taught by Using ABT integrated into classroom and CLT approach. Whereas, a post- activities instrument was given to find the data about students' activities during the learning process after they were taught by using ABT integrated into classroom. There were 60 statements the questionnaire related to the students' activities during the learning process in the experimental group and 28 statements in control group. The students' activities were observed by giving positive and negative comment. If the students got a positive point, they were given score two (2) and if they got negative point, they were given score one (1). Furthermore, the students' maximum score in the experimental group was 120 and the minimum score was 60. Therefore, the maximum score in the control group was 56 and the minimum score was 28.

### 3.2.2 Students' Speaking Ability Pre-Test and Post-Test (Interview)

In collecting the information about students speaking ability in the experimental and control groups, the students were interviewed. The interviewed were conducted before they were taught by using the method and after they were taught by using the method. There were 10 question related to the students' personal identity used in the interview. The test was cover all aspect of speaking skills such as, comprehension, grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, and accuracy. The score will be measured in likert scale from 1= Very poor, 2= poor, 3= neutral, 4= good, and 5= very good.

### 3.2.2 Data Analysis

A statistical analysis was proposed in analysing the collecting data and a Statistical description is used to describe the relationship or correlation between the three variables because, it describes the group in terms of the variables that have been measured or counted. An inferential (parametric) statistic had been used in analysing the significant of the collecting data. In addition, the data had been tested by using *ANACOVA (Analysis of Co- Variance)* and the data was anayzed through SPSS IBM Vers. 23. Applications.

## 4. Findings and Discussion

The first question of this research is asking if ABT is effective in teaching speaking in CLT Classroom. In answering the question, the *Paired Sample T Test* was used. The result can be seen in the following table 5.1:

Table 4.1 The Analysis of the Pre- Activities and Post- Activities in the experimental group by using *t- test Paired Sample Statistic*

### Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Post-test of ABT + CLT)	101.73	30	8.034	1.467
	Pre-test of ABT + CLT)	89.97	30	7.165	1.308

### Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Post-test & pre-test of ABT + CLT	30	.425	.019



In the table *Paired Sample Statistics*, it shows the statistically summary from the two Observations. For the observation score before and after the students were taught by using ABT integrated with CLT classroom, it was found that the students' activities *mean* before they were taught by using ABT integrated with CLT the was 89.97 while, the score after they were taught by using ABT integrated with CLT classroom the *mean* was 101.73.

Table 4.2 The Output of Correlation between the Pre- Activities and the Post-Activities Observation Data in the Experimental Group.

**Paired Samples Test**

		Pair 1
		Post-Activities and pre-Activities Observation of ABT + CLT
Paired	Mean	11.767
Differences	Std. Deviation	8.186
	Std. Error Mean	1.495
	95% Confidence Interval of Lower the Difference	8.710
	Upper	14.823
T		7.873
Df		29
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000

In the *Paired Samples Test* table, it can be seen that *t- count* is 7.873 with the probability value is 0.000. If the value refers to the comparison between *t- count* and *t- table* significance ( $\alpha$ ) is 0.025% (confidence interval= 97.5%), the *2- tailed* test should be conducted to know whether the *mean* before and after the treatment was identic or not. In this case, the *2- tailed test* in IBM SPSS Ver. 23 and *df* or *the degree of freedom* is *n-1* or  $30-1 = 29$ , from the *t- table*, it was found that *df*= 2.04. It means that *t- count* > *t- table* ( $7.873 > 2.04$ ). From the

explanation, it can be concluded that ABT integrated with CLT is effective in increasing the students' achievement in learning.

In the *paired sample test* table, it was found that *mean* = 11.767. This *mean* was found from the post- test *mean* – *pre- test mean* ( $101.730 - 89.970 = 11.767$ ). The difference 11.767 has a range between lower limit point 8.710 to upper limit point 14.823. The result showed that the difference 11.767 with the range 8.710 to 14.823 is significant enough to be assumed that ABT integrated with CLT classroom is effective in increasing students' achievement in learning.

Table 4.3 the output of Differences on the students' activities during the learning English before and after they were taught by using ABT integrated with CLT (Experimental Group)

#### Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

##### Ranks

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Post-Activities–pre- Activities Observation of ABT + CLT)	2 <sup>a</sup>	3.00	6.00
Negative Ranks			
Positive Ranks	25 <sup>b</sup>	14.88	372.00
Ties	3 <sup>c</sup>		
Total	30		

a. post-activities Observation in ABT + CLT < pre-activities Observation in ABT + CLT

b. post-activities (Observation of ABT + CLT) > pre-activities (Observation of ABT + CLT)

c. post-activities (Observation after ABT + CLT) = pre-activities (Observation before ABT + CLT)

In the output table 4.3, it can be seen that from the total sample (N) =30. 2 data have negative differences, and 25 data have positive signs and 3 data were identic (ties). In *Wilcoxon* test (*Wilcoxon T-test statistic*), the value used is the smallest differences value. For the reason, in this research, the negative difference used was 2 (it was showed in Colom *sum of ranks*). From this value, the smallest difference used was 2 (it can be seen in column *sum of rank*). From this value, it was found that *Wilcoxon t-test statistic* (T) was 6.00. In *Wilcoxon* table, the total data (N) = 30, *1- tailed and the significance level* ( $\alpha$ ) = 5%. From the analysis, it was found that the

*Wilcoxon statistic table* = 152. Thus, *the statistic count* < *statistic table* ( $6.00 < 152$ ), it means that ABT integrated with CLT classroom is effective in increasing students' achievement in learning.

On the other hand, based on *the z or z test* in the output table  $z = -4.400$  (based on the negative rank). The decision was decided by comparing the *z count with z table* and *2- tailed test*. If *2- tailed*  $\alpha = 5\%$  was divided into 2 it become  $2.5\%$  ( $0.05: 2 = 2.5\%$ ). From the analysis, it was found that the shape of normal curve is  $50\% - 2.5\% = 47.5\%$  or  $0.475$ . It can be assumed that, *2- tailed test in table z*, for  $0.475$  was  $1.96$  (in *the z table*). Moreover, *z count* < *z table* ( $-4.400 < 1.96$ ). It means that the implementation of ABT integrated with CLT improved the students' activities in the learning process. This assumption was also proved by the probability shown in the *Colom Asymp. Sig (2-tailed)* was lower than  $(\alpha) = 0.025$  ( $0.000 < 0.025$ ). The result can be seen in the following table 4.9:

Table 4.4 the output of Z Analysis by using Wilcoxon 2- tailed

**Test Statistics<sup>a</sup>**

	Post-activities- pre-activities (Observation of ABT + CLT)
Z	-4.400 <sup>b</sup>
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

In answering this question, the Analysis of co-Variance was used *ANACOVA*.

*Variant- co- variant* analysis was conducted into two steps. First, to know the interaction between *co- variant* (the pre- test data). This analysis was conducted in two steps. First, the analysis of interaction between covariant (pre- test data) and fixed factor (variable method). In conducting this analysis there should be no interaction between *co- variant* and the fixed factor. Second, the analysis of *co- variant*. The result can be seen in the following table 5.1:

Table 4.5 the output interaction between *co- variant* from SPSS Ver. 23:

**Tests of Between-Subjects Effects**

Dependent Variable: posttest (Skor of PostTest students' speaking ability)

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	43082.138 <sup>a</sup>	3	14360.713	49.925	.000	.728
Intercept	5918.161	1	5918.161	20.575	.000	.269
Group treatment	2926.848	1	2926.848	10.175	.002	.154
Pretest	11606.236	1	11606.236	40.349	.000	.419
treatment * pretest	1612.292	1	1612.292	5.605	.191	.021
Error	16108.046	56	287.644			
Total	3608451.000	60				
Corrected Total	59190.183	59				

a. R Squared = .728 (Adjusted R Squared = .713)

From the output table, it can be seen that \* the pre-test before the treatment has a probability significance =  $0.191 > \alpha (0.05)$ , it means that there is no interaction between the method variable and the data before the treatment. The next step was the analysis of *co-variant*, the result can be seen in the following table 4.40:

Table 4.6 The Analysis of co-variant

### Descriptive Statistics

Dependent Variable: post-test ( students' speaking ability Post-test Score)

Treatment group (Method)	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1 CLT (control group)	226.13	33.127	30
2 ABT & CLT (experimental group)	260.30	18.434	30
Total	243.22	31.674	60

In the table 4.6, the statistical description of the data after treatment was shown. The *mean* of the total score of the students' speaking ability after they were taught by using CLT (control group) was 226.13. Therefore, the *mean* of the total score of students' speaking ability after they were taught by using ABT integrated into was higher than the students' speaking ability, which was taught by using CLT, that is 260.30.

The effect of ABT integrated into CLT can be seen in the following table 5.2, the tests of *Between- Subject Effect* was conducted. The result can be seen in the following table 4.41

Table 4.7 The Hypothesis Analysis by using *Between- Subject Effect*

<b>Tests of Between-Subjects Effects</b>						
Dependent Variable: posttest (Skor PostTest of students' speaking ability)						
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	41469.846 <sup>a</sup>	2	20734.923	66.697	.000	.701
Intercept	4307.830	1	4307.830	13.857	.000	.196
Pretest	23959.429	1	23959.429	77.069	.000	.575
The treatment group	20620.455	1	20620.455	66.329	.000	.538
Error	17720.337	57	310.883			
Total	3608451.000	60				
Corrected Total	59190.183	59				
a. R Squared = .701 (Adjusted R Squared = .690)						

In the table 4.7, it can be seen that the probability significance ( $0.000 < \alpha (0.05)$ ). It means that the Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) was refused. Furthermore, it can be concluded that the Alternative Hypothesis ( $H_a$ ) was accepted. It means that there is an effect of ABT integrated into CLT on the students' speaking ability. Furthermore, the parameter estimates about the effect of ABT integrated into was conducted. The result can be seen in the following table 4.42:

Table 4.8 the Output of Parameter Estimates Analysis on the effect of ABT integrated into

### Parameter Estimates

Dependent Variable: post-test (Skor Post-Test students' speaking ability)

Parameter	B	Std. Error	T	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		Partial Eta Squared
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
Intercept	91.360	19.511	4.682	.000	52.290	130.431	.278
Pre-test	.962	.110	8.779	.000	.743	1.182	.575
[treatment=1]	-37.182	4.565	-8.144	.000	-46.325	-28.040	.538
[treatment=2]	0 <sup>a</sup>	.	.	.	.	.	.

a. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

In column B and *Sig. Output Parameter Estimates*, it give the meaning that if the students were not taught by using ABT integrated into, their speaking ability will be lower 91.360 than the students who were taught by using ABT integrated into). It can be concluded that there is a correlation between ABT integrated into and students' speaking ability.

#### 4.2.3 The Comparison between the Students' Speaking Ability Pre- Test and Post-Test in the Experimental Group and Control Group.

In analyzing the *mean of significant difference* of students' speaking ability pre- test and post- test, the *t- test sample independence*, *Mann- Whitney Test*, and *Two- Sample Kolmogorov- Smirnov test* were conducted. Through the analysis of the students' speaking ability pre- test of the two groups, it was found that there was no difference on the students' speaking ability in the experimental group and control group. Furthermore, the analysis on the students' speaking ability post- test in experimental group and control group was conducted; it was found that there was difference between students' speaking ability in the experimental group and control group.

The hypothesis on the effect of ABT integrated into was conducted by using *ANACOVA*. The analysis was conducted into two steps they are, the analysis of interaction between *co-Varian* (pre- test) and *fixed factor* (method variable), and analysis of *co- variant*. Through the analysis on the interaction between pre- test and the method used in the research, it was found that there is no interaction effect on the students' speaking ability pre- test and the method used before they were taught by using ABT integrated into CLT classroom

(experimental group) and CLT (control Group). Furthermore, through the analysis of *co-variant*, it was found that the *mean* of students' speaking ability's score after they were taught by using CLT was 226. 13. Therefore, *the mean* of students' speaking ability's score after they were taught by using ABT integrated CLT was 260. 30.

In testing the hypothesis, it was conducted by using Tests of *Between- Subject Effect*. Through the analysis, it was found that there was an effect of ABT integrated with CTL on the students' speaking ability improvement. From the explanation, it can be assumed that the *Alternative Hypothesis* ( $H_a$ ), which stated that there is an effect of ABT integrated into on the students' speaking ability, was accepted. Meanwhile, the *Null Hypothesis*, which stated that there is no effect of ABT integrated into on the students' speaking ability, was rejected.

Furthermore, the Parameter Estimates was conducted to estimate the role of ABT integrated into on the students' speaking ability. Through the analysis, it was found that if the students were not taught by using ABT integrated into, their speaking ability would be lower 91.360 compared to the students, which were taught by using ABT integrated into. From the analysis, it can be concluded that there is an effect of ABT integrated into on the students' speaking ability.

## 5. Conclusion

Through the analysis, it can be concluded that there is a relationship between the students' speaking ability and the method or approach used in teaching. In this research, it was found that there is a correlation between the students' speaking ability and ABT integrated into CLT, there is a difference between the students' speaking ability, which was taught by using ABT integrated into and the students speaking ability, which was taught by using CLT. The analysis promoted that the students' speaking ability that was taught by using ABT integrated into would be significantly increased rather than students' speaking ability that was taught by using CLT. It can be concluded that ABT integrated into is more effective in increasing students' speaking ability rather than CLT.

## References

- Brown, Douglas H. 2007. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*: Fifth Editio. San Francisco. Pearson Education Inc
- Byrne, D.onn. 1991. *Techniques for Classroom Interaction*. London : Longman.
- Chaney, Ann. L and Burk, L. Tamara. . 1998. *Teaching Oral Communication in Grade k-8*. United Stated of America: Prentice Hall

- Crammer and Wasiak. 2010. *Change the Way You See everything and Change the Way You See Yourself Through Asset Based Thinking for Teens*. Philadelphia: Running Prees.
- Crammer and Wasiak. 2009. *Change the Way You See Everything Through Asset Based Thinking for Teens*. Philadelphia: Running Prees.
- Cohen, Manion, and Morrison. 2005 *Research Methods in Education 5<sup>th</sup> Edition*. London: Taylor and Francis e-Library
- Eloff, Irma F and Ebersohn, Liesel. 2001. The Implications of an Asset Based Approach To early intervention, Perspectives in Education. *Research Article ( Educational Psychology)*. Vol. 19, no 3, 147-157.
- Efrizal, Dedi. 2012. Improving Students' Speaking through Communicative Language Teaching Method at MTs Ja- Alhaq, Sentot Ali Bas Islamic Broarbing School of Bengkulu. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*: vol.2, no. 20, 125-133.
- Zen and The Art of English Language Teaching. Sandra J. Savignon. In S.J.S (Ed). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching*, 82-88. London: Yale University Press
- Harmer, Jeremy. 2007. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. San Francisco. Pearson Education Inc.
- Kayi, Hayriye. 2006. Teaching Speaking: Activities to Promote Speaking in a Second Language. *The Internet TES Journal*, vol XII, 11, 347-402.
- Kretzmann and Mcknight. 1993. *The Basic Manual Building Communities from the Inside Out: A path Toward Finding and Mobilizing a Communities Asset*. Unpublished Paper Presented at Asset Based Community Development Institute Seminar. North-western Univeristy
- Littlewood, William. 1981. *Commu-nicative Language Teaching An introduction*. United Kingdom: Cambridge Univer-sity Press.
- Oradee, Thanyalak. 2012. Developing Speaking skills Using Three Communicative Activities (Discussion, Problem-Solving, and Role-Playing: *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, vol.2(6): 533-535.
- Odyssey Educational Testing Center. *Asset Based Thinking*. <http://www.Odysseyschool.com>. March, 10<sup>th</sup> 2015.
- Paek, P. Lee. 2008. Asset-based instruction: Boston Public Schools. *Local innovations in Strengthening secondary mathematics*. Austin, TX: Charles A. Dana Center at The University of Texas at Austin.



- Richard, J.C. and Rodgers, T. 2001. *Approaches and Method in Language Teaching*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Savignon, J Sandra. 2002. *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching*. London: Yale university press and New Haven
- Savignon, J. Sandra. 1997. *Communicative Language Teaching: Linguistic Theory and Classroom Practice*. London : Yale University press.
- Spratt, Marry. 2005. *Improving Students' Speaking Ability Through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)*. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Tung, Rosann. 2013. *English Language Learners: Shifting to An Asset Based Paradigm*. Annerberg for School Reform: Brown university.
- Wang, Chochang. 2002. Innovative Teaching in Foreign Language Context: The Case of Taiwan.. Sandra J. Savignon. In S.J.S (Ed). *Interpreting Communicative Language Teaching*, 131-153. London: Yale University Press.
- Yafi, A. Mohammad. 2009. *Improving Students' Speaking Skill Through Discussion Method in Grade X SMAN 1 Tenganan*. Unpublished Thesis. University of Islam South Sumatera Indonesia
- Vongxay, Hongkham. 2013. *The Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in an English Department in a Lao Higher Educational Institution: A Case Study*. Education Dissertations and Theses 109. Unites Institute of Technology of New Zealand.

## **Using Marlins English For Seafarers to Improve Listening Comprehension**

**Sunarlia Limbong**

*Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Makassar, Indonesia*

### **Biodata**

**Sunarlia Limbong** is an English Lecturer at Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Makassar. This school is under Ministry of Transportation Republic of Indonesia. She got her undergraduate in Hasanuddin University and postgraduate in Makassar State University. Her research interests are language learning strategies and applied linguistics. She can be contacted at [sunarlia26@gmail.com](mailto:sunarlia26@gmail.com).

### **Abstract**

This research aimed at finding out: (1) the listening comprehension achievement using Marlins English for Seafarers based computer in the language laboratory and (2) the interest of the first semester students of PIP Makassar in 2015-2016 academic year in listening comprehension using Marlins English for Seafarers based computer. The research applied quasi-experimental method. The data collected were the students' listening achievement through listening comprehension test and the students' interest through questionnaire. The data obtained were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS Statistics 17.0 program. The result of data analysis showed that the probability value (0.000) was smaller than the level of significance (0.05). This implied that using Marlins English For Seafarers in the language laboratory improved the students' listening comprehension while their mean of interest was 85.70 which was classified into *very high* category. Based on the data analysis, the writer concluded: (1) the use of Marlins English for Seafarers in using computer improved the students' listening comprehension achievement in the language laboratory, (2) the students were interested in learning listening comprehension using Marlins English For Seafarers.

**Keywords:** *Listening, CALL, interest*

## Introduction

Listening is an essential component in learning a language, especially when we learn the four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening is listed first because it appears first in natural first language acquisition and also used the most. (Morley 2001) states that on average, we can expect to listen twice as much we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write. Harmer (1992) points out that as person is listening, he is actually employing a number of special skills which will determine his success at understanding the context that he hears, they are predictive skills, extracting specific information, getting the general picture, and inferring opinion and attitude.

Foreign language teaching and learning, especially English language for communication at sea is a part of curriculum in all maritime colleges. This is because English has been used as the sea language in a whole world. As Stevens and Johnson (1983) said that “English has become an international language at sea.” Moreover, it is also used for ship to ship communication, ship to shore and between crew on board. Then since 1995, the International Maritime Organization (IMO) adopted English as the official language or lingua franca which is used in communication (British Council, 2009). Based on Pritchard (2008) lingua franca at sea is known as Maritime English. Lack of communication skill especially in Maritime English can decrease the safety at sea. One of the researches shows that 80% of maritime accident are down to human factors, of which failure of communication represents one third (Verbek, 2011).

Therefore, communication activities especially listening to Maritime English must be trained well to the seafarers. One effective way to teach listening to the seafarer is by using CALL. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is an emerging force in language education. Despite its awkward beginning and the on-going resistance of many in the language teaching community, it is maturing and showing that it can be a powerful tool in the hands of experienced teachers.

The advantage of Marlins English for Seafarers using computer compared with other audiovisual learning equipment is that its materials are various and attractive and its performance is more compact, it is easy in its operation, and its accessible maintenance and it seems that nowadays multimedia computers are available everywhere and we can rent or purchase it easily.

This research focuses on listening skill because listening has a crucial role, through listening skill the students can be expected to improve or develop their capability to identify and understand what others are saying and by grasping the meaning what others are saying. If

the students have the ability to understand and identify what others are saying in this case listening skill, they can improve their communicative activities.

By considering the reason above, the writer is interested in carrying out the research, which entitles, “Using Marlins English for Seafarers to Improve Listening Comprehension” to the first semester students of Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Makassar.

Based on the background above, the researcher formulated the research questions as follows:

1. Does the use of Marlins English for Seafarers in using computer significantly improve listening comprehension of the first semester students of PIP Makassar?
2. Are the first semester students of PIP Makassar interested in learning listening comprehension through the use of Marlins English for Seafarers in using computer?

## **Literature Review**

### **Previous Related Studies**

A few empirical studies have been conducted to uncover the listening strategies used by second/foreign language learners. Young (1997) worked with twelve intermediate ESL University students and concluded that the high achievers used their prior knowledge (personalizing), made guesses (inferring) and monitored their comprehension (self describing) more often than did the low achievers. Vandergrift (2004) found that the successful French as a second language learner monitored their own listening comprehension and identified aspects which hinder comprehension twice as frequently than their unsuccessful counterparts, but the differences were not statistically tested. Chen (1996) conducted the research and reported that many teachers, domestic, and foreign have observed that students generally have positive attitudes about computer technology being used in the classroom and that such technology does have a positive impact.

### **Pertinent Ideas**

According to Saricoban (1999) listening is one of the fundamental language skills. It's medium through which children, young people and adults gain a large portion of their education, their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideals, sense of values, and their appreciation.

Listening is the ability to comprehend what interlocutors are saying which involve understanding the meaning, accent, grammar. A good listener is capable of doing those things simultaneously. Saricoban (1999), lists a series of micro-skills of listening, which she calls *enabling skills*. They are: 1) Predicting what people are going to talk about; 2) Guessing at unknown words or phrases without panic; 3) Using one's own knowledge of the subject to help

one understand; 4) Identifying relevant points; rejecting irrelevant information; 5) Retaining relevant points (note-taking, summarizing); 6) Recognizing discourse markers, e.g., well; oh, another thing is; now, finally; etc; 7) Recognizing cohesive devices, e.g., *such as* and *which*, including linking words, pronouns, references, etc.; 8) Understanding different intonation patterns and uses of stress, etc. which give clues to meaning and social setting; and 9) Understanding inferred information, e.g., speakers' attitude or -intentions. Petty and Jensen (1980) states that listening refers to the process by which spoken language is converted to meaning in the sound. It is convenient to think of the listening process as having four steps: (1) hearing, (2) understanding, (3) evaluating, and (4) responding. Those four steps apply to all acts of receiving communication by auditory means, listening is the process of becoming aware of the sound component and recognizing these components sequence that have meaning.

## **Research Method**

In this research, the researcher applied quasi-experimental method with pretest-posttest control group design, it consists of two groups, one received treatment (using computer based program: Marlins English for Seafarers) and the other group received the conventional teaching. Both groups were given pretest and posttest. The pretest carried out to find out the prior knowledge of students while posttest did to find out the effectiveness and improvement of English teaching which focuses on listening skill by using computer based program.

The population of this research was the first semester students of the Nautical Department of Makassar Merchant Marine Polytechnics. The total number of classes are five classes. Each class consists of 30 students. The total number of population are 150 students. The samples were selected based on cluster random sampling technique in which two from five classes were selected randomly as experimental group and control group, in this case, class Nautical IA was as an experimental group and class Nautical IC was as a control group. So, the total number of sample consisted of 60 students.

In collecting the required data, the writer applied two kinds of instruments, they were listening test and questionnaire. The procedures of collecting toward both experimental and control groups were done through pretest, treatment and posttest to find out the listening comprehension test, while the questionnaire were also distributed to the students in order to know the students interest toward the use of the computer Based program (Marlins English for Seafarers) in learning listening comprehension.

## Findings and Discussion

### a. The Interpretation of Result of Listening Comprehension Test

To analyze the data obtained from the test, the writer used the t-test (test of difference) formula and the basic statistical formula was used to analyze the questionnaire.

Having calculated the students' pretest and posttest on listening, the table of pretest and posttest of the students' scores in listening is presented as follows:

Table 4.1. The Rate Percentage of the Students' Pretest Score on Listening Comprehension Achievement.

No.	Classification	Range	Experimental group		Control Group	
			(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)
1.	Very Good	81 – 100	0	0	0	0
2.	Good	61 – 80	5	16.7	4	13.3
3.	Fair	41 – 60	20	66.7	19	63.3
4.	Poor	21 – 40	5	16.7	7	23.3
5.	Very poor	0 – 20	0	0	0	0
Total			30	100	30	100

Table 4.2. The Rate Percentage of the Students' Posttest Score in Listening Comprehension Achievement.

No.	Classification	Range	Experimental group		Control Group	
			(f)	(%)	(f)	(%)
1.	Very Good	81 – 100	8	26.7	2	6.7
2.	Good	61 – 80	17	56.7	8	26.7
3.	Fair	41 – 60	5	16.7	17	56.7
4.	Poor	21 – 40	0	0	3	10
5.	Very poor	0 – 20	0	0	0	0
Total			30	100	30	100

From the data presented in the previous findings, the percentage of the students' scores of experimental group and control group obtained through the test showed in the pretest that the students in experimental group the same level of classification the students in control group, the most of the students in experimental group, 20 out of 30 students or equivalent to 66.7 percents were scored into fair classification; it is same with control group, most of the students, 19 out of them or equivalent to 63.3 percents were scored at fair classification too. In the

posttest, both groups resulted different scores, where most of the students in experimental group 17 (56.7 percent) out of 30 students were in *good* classification and most of the students in control group 17 (56.7 percent) out of 30 students were in *fair* classification. Taking the describe data into account, since the percentage gained by the students in experimental group was much higher than that of control one, it implies that using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory in learning listening could improve the students' listening comprehension achievement.

Table 4.3. The Statistical Summary of the Students' Pretest of Both Groups in Listening.

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode	Median	Min. score	Max. score	N
Experimental Group	51.67	10.13	52	51	35	70	30
Control Group	47.42	10.33	32	46	32	72.5	30

Table 4.4. The Statistical Summary of the Students' Posttest of Both Groups in Listening.

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mode	Median	Min. score	Max. score	N
Experimental Group	71.00	10.03	70	70	52.5	87.5	30
Control Group	56.75	12.00	52.50	52.50	32.5	82.5	30

The mean scores of the students' tests: from pretest to posttest also showed that there was an improvement of students' listening comprehension achievement, where the mean score of the students' pretest was 51.67 from experimental group and 47.42 from control group, while the mean score in posttest was 71.00 from experimental group and 56.75 from control group. The mean scores of both groups increased after they were given treatment. The experimental group learnt listening by using Marlins English For Seafarers in the language laboratory, while the control group learnt listening by using conventional teaching technique. The improvement of the students' listening comprehension achievement was marked by the result of the posttest in both groups. However, the improvement rate of experimental group was much higher than that of the control group. It can be concluded that the mean score of the students' posttest in experimental group and control group were significantly different.

Table 4.6. The t-Test Value of the Students' Listening Comprehension Achievement

Variables	Experimental group		Control group
	t-test value	probability value	Level of significance ( $\alpha$ )
Pretest	1.609	0.113	0.05
Posttest	4.989	0.000	0.05

By using statistical analysis for inferential analysis-test of difference for independent samples, there was a significant difference between the mean score of students in experimental group and control group of listening comprehension achievement. It proved by comparing the probability value with the level of significance, where the value of the probability (0.000) was smaller than the level of significance (0.05).

It can be concluded that the students' listening comprehension achievement was significantly improved by the use of Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in language laboratory even though in conducting treatment, the writer found obstacles. They happened in treatment 4 and posttest of experimental group that the light was off when we are going to start the class. The research has been done successfully by asking another teacher class to change the program which was cancelled. This program (materials and aid) was able to give greater contribution in teaching and learning listening comprehension, because it could improve the students' listening comprehension better than using conventional teaching.

This finding also goes with what Knowles (2004) says that in general using CALL delivered in a well-ordered sequence that can lead the learner to improve language skill particularly listening comprehension and to understand the grammar, syntax and vocabulary of the target language with no need for text support. Learners can interact with the presentation and have their interactions recorded into their study records and even influence the pace and level of the presentation. Thus, learning would be fun and relatively effortless, and the role of teacher would diminish.

In this case, using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory which it prepares materials and teaching aid could improve the students' listening achievement and more importantly to guide the teachers about some of the most effective ways of devising teaching strategies in the classroom and ideas about how to create activities. It also includes suggestions to help teachers enhance their individual skills in material developments and choosing the teaching aid.



## b. The Interpretation of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was only distributed to the group that was received a listening learning program using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory. It covered general statements about interest in learning listening comprehension.

Table 4.7. The Students' Interest to Learn Listening Comprehension

No.	Classification	Range	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Very Low	20 – 350	0	
2.	Low	36 – 51	0	0
3.	Adequate	52 – 67	0	0
4.	High	68– 8316	16	53.3
5.	Very High	84 – 100	14	46.7
Total			30	100

This indicates by the questionnaire data, which shows that most of the students 16 (53.3 percent) out of students were classified into high interest category, 14 (46.7 percent) out of them were classified into very high interest category, none of them belonged to adequate and low interest and very low interest category. Thus, the mean score achieved 85.70 was classified into very high category. It implies that the students in experimental group were really interested to learn listening comprehension using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory.

Beside giving the questionnaire to the students in measuring their interest, the researcher also interviewed some students to know whether they interested or not. Most of students said that they are really enjoy learning listening through computer with multimedia classroom. The students learn not only listening but also computer skill.

Multimedia offers great opportunities to improve a particular language skill, such as listening. Using window on cd-rom, students can receive extra exposure to language through watching and listening to the video clips, then answering the questions on the cd-rom. Having the questions on screen as well as the window for watching the video can make it easy for students to work through the material and assimilate information. Students can repeat this type of exercise as often as they need.

The findings showed that the teaching and learning activities using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory could nurture the students' interest that lead them to use the language more communicatively and effectively. This activity brought the

students to novel and interactive situation in foreign language learning. This activity made the students fell enjoy and excited in learning a foreign language especially English.

## **Conclusions and Suggestions**

### **Conclusions**

Based on the research findings and discussion in the previous chapter the researcher concludes that:

1. The use of Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory improved significantly the listening comprehension achievement of the first semester students of Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Makassar, academic year 2015-2016. This was proved by the result of probability value (0.000) was smaller than level of significance (0.05).
2. The first semester students of Politeknik Ilmu Pelayaran Makassar, academic year 2015-2016 were interested in learning listening comprehension using Marlins English for Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory. The teaching and learning activities using this program could increase the students' interest, enhance their listening performance. It was proved by the mean score 85.70 which was classified into very high category.

### **Suggestions**

Based on the conclusions above, the researcher addresses the following suggestions:

1. It is suggested that teachers should use Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in teaching listening in the language laboratory as supplementing material.
2. Since the students are interested in listening by using Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory, it can be considered to be used as often as possible in teaching listening in the language laboratory and it can also develop students' computer skills beside listening comprehension itself.
3. Additional (further) research is needed to determine whether the use of Marlins English For Seafarers in using computer in the language laboratory have effects on teaching and learning for the skills separately or integrated that was not measured in the present research.

## References

- Abott, Gerry et al. 1981. *The Teaching of English as an International Language. A Practical Guide*, London: Collins Glasgow
- British Council. 2009. *Maritime English*. Retrieved February, 3, 2015, from (<http://www.britishcouncil.org/professionals-specialism-maritime-1.htm>).
- Brown, G & Yule, G. 1983. *Teaching the Spoken Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chen, Judy F. 1996. "CALL is not a Hammer and not Every Teaching Problem is a Nail! Changing Expectations of Computers in the Classroom." *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. VI, No. (Online). (<http://iteslj.org/Articles/Chen-CALL.html>).
- Dikemenjur. 2007. *SMK: Siap Kerja, Cerdas, dan Kompetitif*. Jakarta: Direktorat Pembinaan Sekolah Menengah Kejuruan.
- Gay, L. R. 2006. *Educational Research*, 18<sup>th</sup> Edition, Pearson Education inc. New Jersey: Upper Saddle River.
- Henry D. Putranto, 2008. *Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), Test Preparation Guide*. Bilingual Edition.
- Harmer, Jeremy. 1992. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Handbooks for Language Teachers. London: Longman Publishing.
- Keatley, Catharine and Deborah Kennedy. 2004. "Teaching Listening: Developing Listening Activities." *The National Capital Language Resource Center*. Online (<http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/listening/liindex.htm>).
- Knowles, Lance. 2010. "On the Cusp: New Developments in Language Teaching." *ESL Magazine*. Online ([www.eslmag.com](http://www.eslmag.com)).
- Morley, Joan. 2001. *Aural Comprehension Instruction: Principles and Practices*. New York: Heinle and Heinle.
- Nisbet, Kutz, Logie. 1997. *Marlins English For Seafarers Study Pack 1*. Edinburgh, Marlins.
- O'Malley, J.M., & Charnot, A. U. 1990. *Learning Strategies in Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Petty and Jensen, 1980. *Developing Children's Language*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.
- Pritchard, B. 2008. *Creating minimum Maritime English Vocabulary – A practical exercise*. Proceeding of 20th International Maritime English Conference, Shanghai, China, 27-40.
- Rost, Michael. 1991. *Listening in Action. Activities for Developing Listening in Language Teaching*. London: Prentice Hall International Ltd.

- Sudjana, S. 1996. *Metode Statistika (Edisi Keenam)*. Bandung: Tarsito.
- Saricoban, Arif. 1999. "The Teaching of Listening . Source ;(<http://iteslj.org/Articles/Saricoban-Listening.html>).
- Stevens,. P., & Johnson, E. 1983. SEASPEAK: A project in applied linguistics, language engineering, and eventually ESP for sailors. *The ESP Journal*, 2, 123-129.
- Vandergrift, L. 2004. "Listening to Learn or Learning to Listen?" *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics* 24. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Verbek, E. 2011. "That dreaded 80 percent". *Seaways*, pp. 24-2, June.
- Williams, Edie. 1991. *Reading in the Language Classroom*. London: Modern English Publication.
- Young, Ming Yee Carissa. 1997. "A Serial Ordering of Listening Comprehension Strategies Used by Advanced ESL Learners in Hong Kong." *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching Vol. 7, 1997*. Online (<http://cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt>).



## **Using Intensive Technology in Teaching English for Environmental Engineering: A case study at Danang University of Science and Technology, The University of Danang, Vietnam**

**Truc Giang Huynh, Vu Mai Yen Tran**

*University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Danang, Vietnam*

### **Biodata**

**Truc Giang Huynh** has been working as an English teacher at ESP Department, University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Danang, Vietnam since 2010. She is currently a PhD candidate at the University of Tasmania, Australia. Her focused research interests include Systemic Functional Linguistics and Technology in Education. She may be contacted at [htgiang@ufl.udn.vn](mailto:htgiang@ufl.udn.vn) or [trucgiang.huynh@utas.edu.au](mailto:trucgiang.huynh@utas.edu.au).

**Vu Mai Yen Tran** is currently an English teacher at ESP Department, University of Foreign Language Studies, the University of Danang, Vietnam. She got an M.A degree in Applied Linguistics at Griffith University in 2009. She is particularly interested in teaching English as a foreign language and would like to work on different aspects of language teaching and learning. She can be reached at [tvmyen@ufl.udn.vn](mailto:tvmyen@ufl.udn.vn).

### **Abstract**

It is widely recognized that technology-enhanced learning plays a critical part in promoting learners' engagement in learning activities. However, due to some problems related to teachers, students, facilities and other issues, the application of technology in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in Vietnam has usually been restricted to a few simple educational tools, namely images or videos. This article, therefore, provides insights into ESP learning of environmental engineering students from Danang University of Science and Technology, The University of Danang, Vietnam. Some intensive technologies to develop students' critical thinking and creativity are being piloted at these classes instead of traditional teaching and learning styles. Thanks to the adaptation of technological advances as well as teachers'

guidance, these students, who should be divided into small groups, are expected to present topics and compete with one another in terms of knowledge of some vital environmental issues such as: renewable energy, pollution, waste management, water quality control, etc. more conveniently and interestingly. This study is aimed at acknowledging the importance of the learning model and indicating some drawbacks from personal experience throughout the lessons within one semester, for example, huge class size, Internet access or student motivation. Simultaneously, students' attitudes and perceptions will be examined through a survey, including Likert-scale questions and open-ended questions. Accordingly, some suggestions for teaching ESP at this university in particular and in Vietnam, in general, could rise to meet increased needs of English proficiency in occupational settings.

## **1. Introduction**

As a matter of fact, English is apparently the preferred language of worldwide communication, industry, science and culture with some special terms such as “Global English”, “Global Englishes”, “World English”, “World Englishes” and so on (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Jenkins, 2014; Kachru, 1990; Pennycook, 2006). Enhancing the learning experience in the process of learning English is continuously a concern of foreign language teachers and educators. Previous researchers and studies have attempted to bring learners out of the classroom to experience a new way of learning that can inspire learners' passions, improve communication and collaboration skills, as well as help learners have access to real-life situations (Hwang, 2005; Kilickaya, 2004; Peacock, 1997; W. Wu & Wu, 2008). The purpose of teaching English at Vietnam's tertiary education is expanding the students' command of using English confidently and accurately so that they will be capable of communicating in their future careers and social interactions. Nowadays, English for Specific Purposes, which is believed to be crucial in Vietnamese universities' curriculum (Pham & Ta, 2016; Van Khanh, 2015) is usually taught after learners have achieved a certain level of General English. From the documentary point of view, the teaching method and the role of the instructors as well as the learners have a specific character and are closely related to the student's field of study and are superior to the ones of General English. Tsao, Wei, and Fang (2008) draw our attention to the content of ESP and General English. While they have distinct methods, aims and resources, they both share the same concentration on developing vital language skills.

As a result, students can explore, consult and present professional issues self-assuredly in English. This research focuses on the application of modern technologies to the teaching of

ESP for students of Environmental Engineering, University of Science and Technology, the University of Danang within the first term of the school year 2017-2018, their advantages and disadvantages compared to traditional textbooks and methods; thus some implications are taken into account.

According to Carver (1983, p. 134), ESP aims at transforming learners into users. Harding (2007, p. 6) suggests that in the English language, learners' purpose is most important and directly relates to what they need to perform in their careers. To cater to the specific needs of teaching and learning English, ESP primarily concentrates on the language skills, structure, functions and vocabulary that are essential for students to achieve their professional goals and professional environment. However, as Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 19) emphasise, ESP is not a specific language or method but an approach to language learning based on learner demands. Therefore, tailoring textbooks and other materials to serve students' career purposes must be the top priority in teaching ESP because as indicated by Peacock (2001), learners will become irritated and upset if their learning demands are not met.

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1. ESP in Vietnam**

Teaching English for specific purposes in Vietnam education, especially in tertiary education has been attracting a lot of interest from the government, educators and students. Van Khanh (2015) claims that ESP has become a critical issue in teaching English for higher education in Vietnam recently. After finishing some general English courses, learners continue studying some required ESP courses at universities and colleges. As a result, problems arisen throughout the implementation of ESP courses need to be addressed. Nevertheless, as mentioned by Hoa et al. (2016), there are still many possible drawbacks relating to outdated textbooks, limited class time, enormous class size as well as teaching methods which contribute to the ineffectiveness of ESP in Vietnam.

### **2.2. Technologies in EFL/ESP**

Several authors have shown that language learners who employ various learning methods have more chances to succeed than those who study in one way (Green & Oxford, 1995; Park, 1997; Rose, Meyer, Strangman, & Rappolt, 2002). In addition, it is common knowledge that in a language class, technology can be used as both teaching resources and a tool to enhance

learning experiences (Granger, Hung, & Petch-Tyson, 2002; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Salaberry, 2001). The research to date has tended to concentrate on the importance of employing cutting-edge technologies in teaching foreign languages, particularly in English (Agca & Özdemir, 2013; Chinnery, 2006; Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynik, 2014; Norbrook & Scott, 2003; Wiebe & Kabata, 2010) because as mentioned by Bishop and Verleger (2013, p. 10), despite being favour of “in-person lectures” rather than “video lectures”, learners have a tendency to immerse themselves in “interactive class time”.

In light of that, there have been a number of advantages of using technologies in EFL classrooms. Students are able to gain opportunities to expose to the language in a meaningful context and build up their own knowledge. Besides, multimedia teaching enhances students' communicative competence and collaboration and improves the interaction between teachers and students (Hampel, 2009; Laurillard, 2002; Warschauer, 1997). Furthermore, technology makes learning more effective for students with different needs and encourages individual learning. Students can learn valuable soft skills through technology such as giving presentations and mastering leadership skills (Chase, Macfadyen, Reeder, & Roche, 2002; Harris & Rogers, 2008; Hasbullah & Sulaiman, 2002). On top of that, teachers are capable of improving the methods of teaching and keep students engaged in classroom activities with different online resources (Brookfield, 2015; Ottenbreit-Leftwich, Glazewski, Newby, & Ertmer, 2010; Richards, 2008).

The last few decades have witnessed a considerable amount of literature on considering motivation as one of the most vital factors in mastering a foreign language (Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Oxford & Shearin, 1996; Warden & Lin, 2000). It has been demonstrated that employing technologies will inspire students to join in-class activities, which leads to success in learning languages, especially English (Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012; IlTer, 2009) because e-learning is now the centre of teaching and learning English in the development of a university (Kregor, Breslin, & Fountain, 2012).

Digital learning, on the one hand, brings improvement and freshness to a schoolroom; it still has some weaknesses on the other hand. Due to the shortage of available technicians, teachers have to face technical problems and solve by themselves (Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012). When it comes to assessing student learning, technology-enhanced items could have two advantages, namely measuring a more extensive range of content areas and reducing potential sources of mistakes because students find it hard to randomly choose the proper answers (Grant & Gareis, 2015, p. 87).



There is ample support for the claim that English for specific purposes in higher education should be taught with a variety of teaching materials other than textbooks, and the Internet provides students with exciting tools and motivation. (Hung, 2011; İlin, Kutlu, & Kutluay, 2013; Su & Weng, 2012; Vaičiūnienė & Užpalienė, 2010; Živković, 2016)

Based on the findings of Dogoriti and Pange (2012), it can be argued that although the majority of ESP teachers do wish to apply information and technologies in teaching, they mainly use them on their daily basis for social interactions.

There used to be some traditional tools for learning ESP in Viet Nam universities such as audiotapes, CDs, overhead projectors, documents, stereos, televisions, cameras and camcorders. Nonetheless, we have recently applied some new apps and devices for ESP teaching and learning.

### **2.3. EFL teachers or subject specialists**

It is evident that whether ESP teachers need to be experts in the field is among the most commonly discussed. (Bojovic, 2006; Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Hong, 2001; H. Wu & Badger, 2009). Many theories say that they are teachers who teach English as a foreign language and are not expected to have specialised knowledge.

In Vietnam, the ESP teachers withstand constant pressure of heavy workload. Most of their time and resources are consumed in General English classes regularly. The time assigned for each ESP course lasts only around 30 periods, but the volume of knowledge required to communicate (including expertise and language) is massive. They have to face many challenges and overcome hardships in the subject by themselves because there is no tailored course for them.

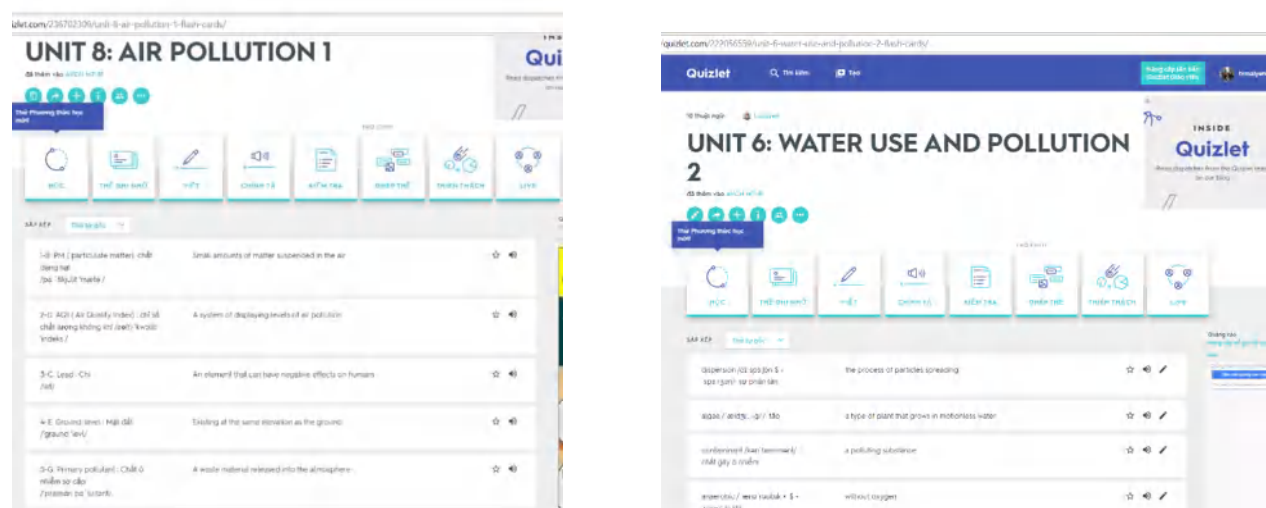
A growing body of literature has investigated whether EFL teachers or subject specialists are preferable for teaching ESP. In Maleki (2008), the author indicated that the outcomes of the two classes at an Iranian medical sciences university with the same backgrounds were different, and the class of the EFL teachers had higher scores in the final achievement tests and gained more satisfaction after the course. Another finding shows that incorporating EFL teachers and subject specialists is principal for short-term purpose while waiting for subject specialists to be sent abroad for studying (Cao, 2014).

In his analysis of ESP English teacher, Harding (2007) drew our attention to their value because they simultaneously took on many roles – language consultant, course designer and materials provider, researcher, collaborator plus an evaluator.

The ESP teachers in Vietnam who embark on their job as an EFL teacher usually encounter difficulties in understanding some scientific terms, and it will be much harder for them to explain to their students. As mentioned by Phan (2008, p. 192), an English teacher in Vietnam is compared to a daughter-in-law of one hundred in-law families, which mean they are supposed to perform flawlessly and satisfy all the expectations from many parties, particularly regarding ethics and morality.

### 3. The application of technology in teaching English for Environmental Engineering

Because the number of learners of English is escalating, many teaching methods have been applied to test the effectiveness of the teaching process (Shyamlee & Phil, 2012). Therefore, it is undeniable that the use of technologies and authentic materials instead of traditional textbooks has contributed to the success of English teaching. A majority of young students are keen on accessing the Internet and are excited if the teachers have the ability to use different online resources such as games, crosswords and applications. In ESP classrooms, some helpful applications, tools and websites have been applied to assist the teaching of environmental engineering and have proved to be successful. The following applications have facilitated classroom environment and diversified learning activities.



**Picture 1.** *The quizlet application*

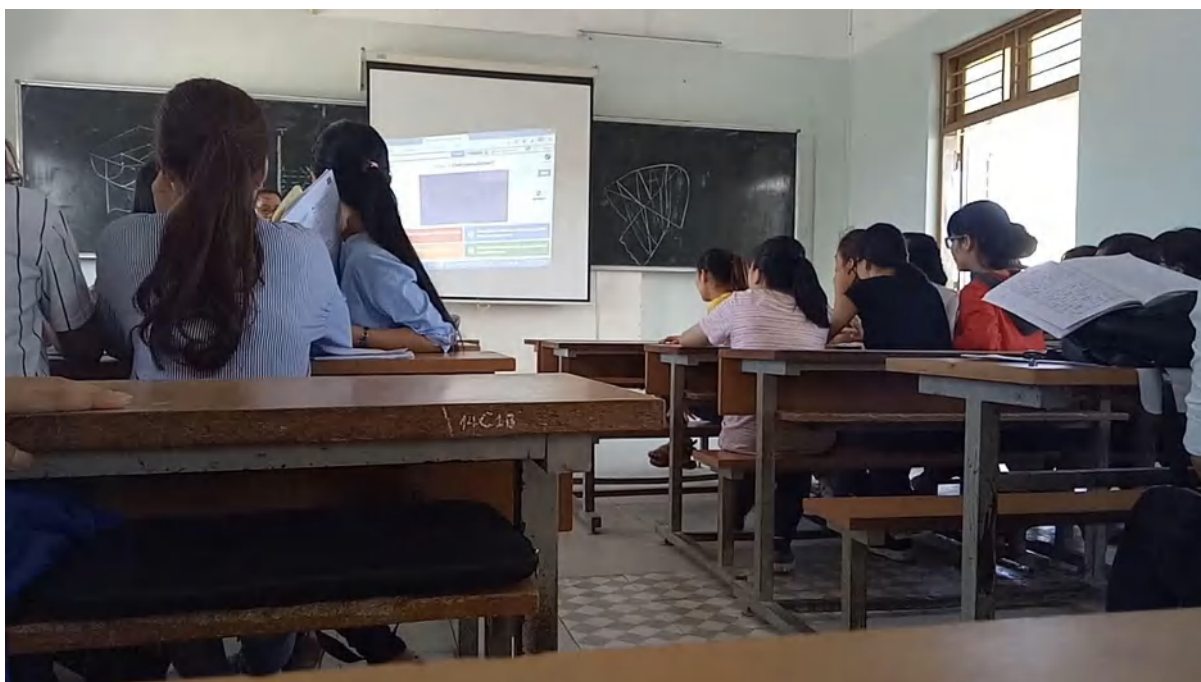
The Quizlet application functions as a memorisation tool to assist students' learning. Learners can take part in a lot of activities and games to study vocabulary on environmental issues with fun. It also allows students to share their works with others in Friends and Groups.

The colours and images used in mind maps are [more relaxed for our brain to remember](#) than a full-text page. Additionally, digital maps let us move and rearrange pieces of information freely. These are some images of mind-mapping from our students using mindmeister.com or popplet.com.



**Picture 2.** The use of mindmeister.com and popplet.com in developing ideas for speaking

Kahoot is a game-based classroom response system. These days, smart devices tend to be an indispensable tool for students, and the application of Kahoot on students' devices such as smartphones or laptops provides opportunities to numerous exciting classroom activities. Picture 3 shows a competition between different groups of students to check what they have learned through lessons of pollution with the use of Kahoot.com and students' smartphones.



**Picture 3.** *The use of Kahoot.com in competitions*

Through the course, some video-making applications like Powtoon and Vivavideo are applied to illustrate what students intend to present about the environment, and of course, this will be an advantage for them to raise people's awareness in their future job (picture 4).



**Picture 4.** *A video made by students about water pollution in a specific place, using powtoon.com*

Using different tools for creating the video is beneficial in that they have an opportunity to edit the video, add the music or the subtitles. Students are very creative in using a lot of technological tools to make a video about the practice of 3R's, namely reduce, reuse and recycle. They are not only professional in using technology but also interested in experiential

learning. Pictures 5 and 6 are examples of students' abilities to apply different techniques in creating their own videos, which can support their learning of ESP.



**Pictures 5 and 6.** *The use of vivavideo to make a documentary and a video on 3R's*

## **4. Feedback from students of Environmental Engineering**

### **4.1. Method**

With the purpose of assessing the teaching effectiveness of ESP classrooms with the application of technology, a semi-structured survey on third-year students from faculties of the environment was carried out in forms of questions and responses to gather different ideas on students' interest in ESP classes. Data were obtained through responses to Likert Scale questionnaires, which were considered uncomplicated and comprehensible enough. As a trend survey, the questionnaire was conducted to search for attitudes and expertise at that moment.

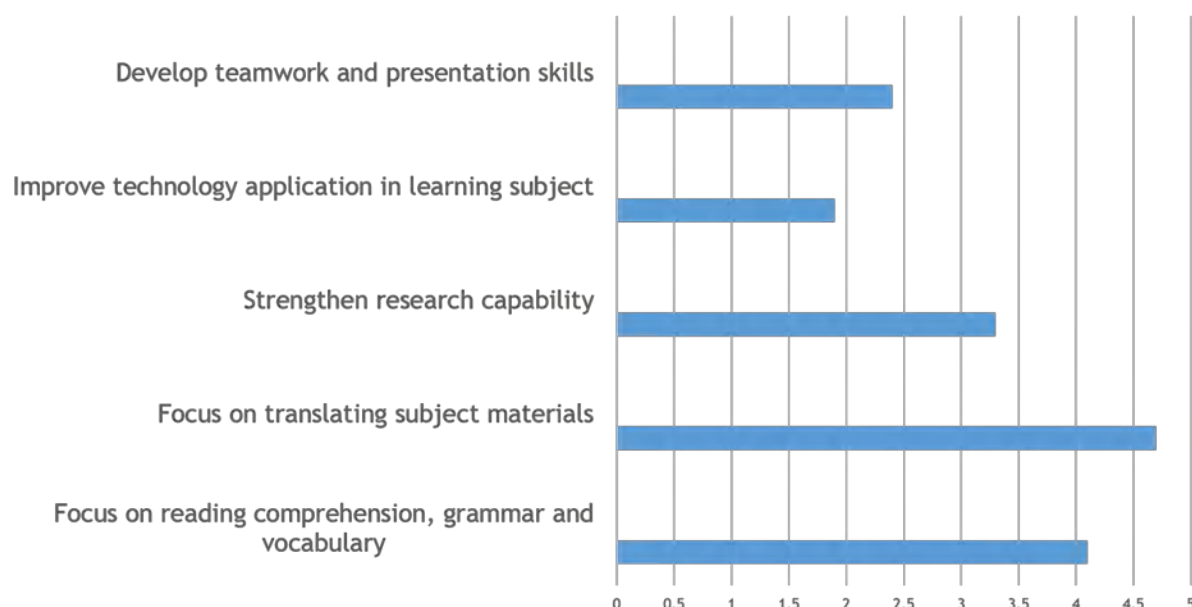
206 questionnaires were first distributed and collected in person or via emails, and then we received 190 valid samples from 108 females and 82 males. The first part of the questionnaire was a brief statement on the questionnaire's objective and some personal questions. The sample consisted of ten multiple choice questions with five-point scales of responses (*never, rarely, sometimes, usually, always*). In addition, some space was permitted for informants to indicate their additional thoughts under each question. These students needed to spend around ten minutes to complete each survey on average. The information probably reveals the viewpoints, tendencies, inspiration along with requirements of these students in learning English for Environmental Engineering with the use of technology. The Likert Scale instrument was adopted to calculate a total score per questionnaire afterwards. The units were assessed on a 5-point Likert scale (0 = never, 1 = rarely, 2 = sometimes, 3 = usually, 4 = always). To start with, a calculation was utilized to become aware of the regularity of each choice from the questionnaires. Then, statistical significance was analysed through the use of Excel. This program helped convert the data from completed questionnaires to the database with the formula:

$$\text{Average rating (X)} = \frac{0A + 1B + 2C + 3D + 4E}{N}$$

N is the total number of respondents.

A, B, C, D or E is the number of times that “never”, “rarely”, “sometimes”, “usually” and “always” were picked respectively. Based on the average rating (X), the opinions, thoughts and practices of the ESP students were evaluated thanks to the bar charts.

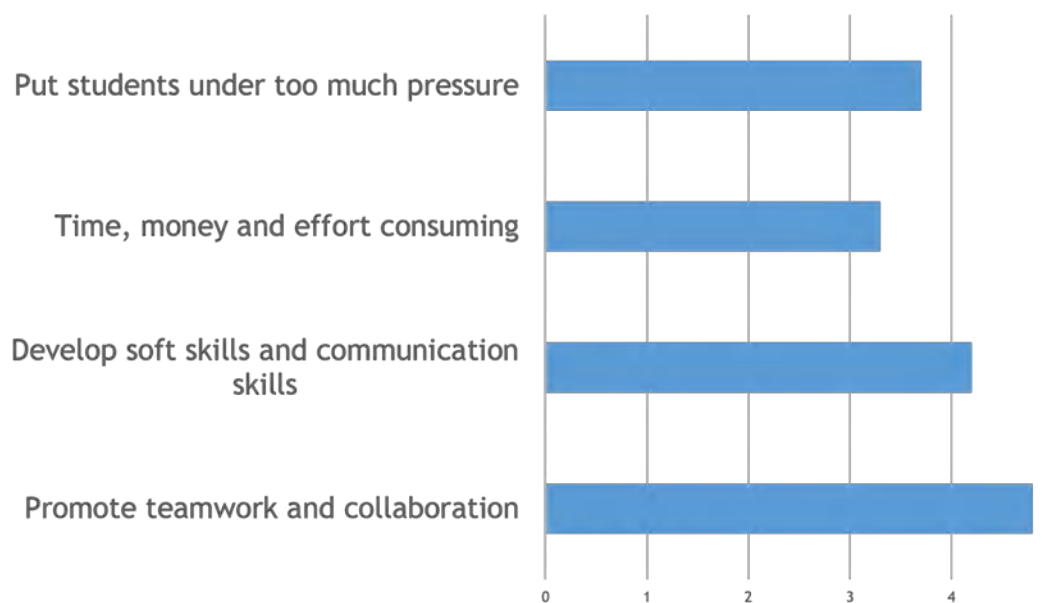
## 4.2. Findings and analysis



**Figure 1.** *Students' thoughts prior to the course about the course's purposes*

As figure 1 shows, prior to the course, most of the ESP students used to think that they would be taught in a traditional way, concentrating on grammar, vocabulary, reading and translating. In their opinions, the language teaching was teacher-centred, as it was highlighted by Richards (2005) that in traditional methodology learning was under the teacher's control. The students believed that if they paid enough attention to the lesson and listened to the teacher's explanations and examples, they would be able to use the knowledge. They did not have an idea that the course would provide them with teamwork, presentation skills as well as assist improving technology application in learning their subject.

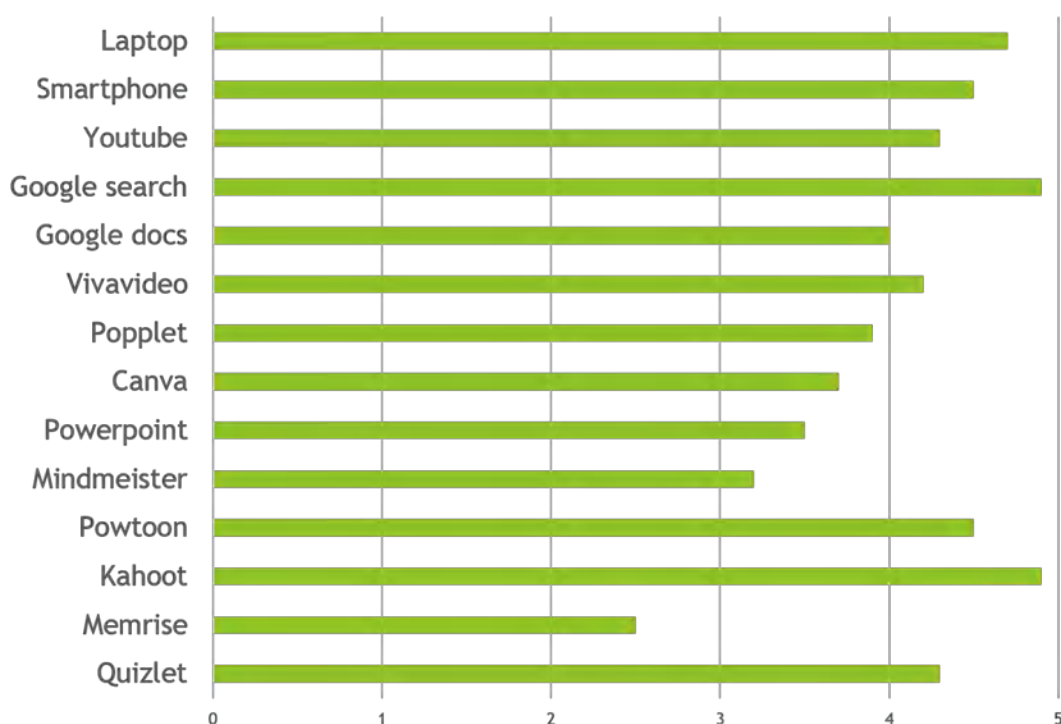
In fact, after the course, the learners have changed their minds. The majority entirely agree that this course promotes teamwork and collaboration, develops soft skills and communication skills, allows them to share their work with a broader audience, and encourages their confidence and personal expression (figure 2). The use of technology also facilitates practice for the development of the four skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening in ESP classes. Moreover, through technology, teachers and students can upload documents, share ideas for speaking and writing, give comments and feedback, and thus, improve interaction and collaboration. Therefore, technology engages students in the learning process (Roblyer & Doering, 2006).



**Figure 2.** *The impact of using intensive technology in learning English for Environmental Engineering in students' estimation after the course.*

However, some still argue that they had too much pressure when practicing these types of technology, which consumed a lot of time, money and effort. Some students do not have enough skills for using a computer or an application they have never known before, and it is time-consuming to design pictures, graphs, insert images and upload a document with the new applications suggested by the teacher. Furthermore, if the students spend too much time on exploring technology, there is a strong possibility that it might distract them from their learning rather than support them.





**Figure 3.** *Best applications and tools for learning ESP according to the survey among students.*

Figure 3 clearly shows that out of the applications and tools introduced throughout the semester, Kahoot, Google search and laptop are among the most highly estimated. These tools and applications allow students to develop a lot of activities to practice and improve their ESP with joy since most of the students say that they use at least one of the tools provided. The other tools, namely powtoon, canva, mindmeister, vivavideo are also preferable by the students in that they give students a variety of choices to do the tasks such as doing an interview, writing a report or making a presentation. In other words, intensive technology in ESP classrooms offers a considerable amount of information and provides opportunities for students to communicate, cooperate with each other, which enhances the learning of ESP.

## **5. Conclusion and implications**

### **5.1. Conclusion**

Through the applications of technology in English classes of Environmental Engineering at the University of Science and Technology and students' responses towards the learning effectiveness, there are a number of benefits that have been found out; for example, getting to know useful tools and applications, engaging students in learning activities, increasing students' participation or decreasing classroom boredom. Moreover, technologies contribute to

boosting information retention, developing responsible and autonomous learners as well as promoting motivation and creativity. On top of that, applying technologies perhaps leads to some vital soft skills, namely developing critical thinking, strengthening research capability in addition to developing teamwork and presentation skills.

However, some drawbacks should be adequately addressed when using technology in ESP classrooms. One of the most significant disadvantages is the huge class size, which makes it difficult for the teacher to observe and facilitate students in group work or pair work. Short time allotted (25 hours/ semester) is another obstacle that limits the deployment of classroom activities based on the tools and applications provided. Likewise, the application of technology has put much burden on the students. If the teacher abuses too much technology in the class, it may demotivate the students since they have to put a lot of efforts to fulfil the teacher's requirements.

Undoubtedly, intensive technology provides a plenty of values to teachers and students of English for Environmental Engineering. Considering the real situation of applying tools and applications in ESP classrooms and students' feedback, the researchers suggest the following recommendations to promote the learning of English for specific purposes at Danang University of Science and Technology.

## **5.2. Implications for ESP teachers**

Recent developments in ESP have shown the need for transforming from "teacher-centred" version to students' positive function (Kaur, 2007; Poedjiastutie, 2017; Sifakis, 2003). As a result, ESP teachers should be aware of the benefits that intensive technology brings in language teaching and learning, regularly update new tools and applications to apply in classes and make use of technology to design a variety of classroom activities and tasks to upgrade students' language skills.

## **5.3. Implications for ESP students**

As suggested by Su (2010) and Lee (2016), ESP learners have realized the critical part that ESP course takes in their future jobs. These students, especially those who have the higher language competence acknowledge the effectiveness and worthwhileness of these courses. The majority of respondents in our survey feel that EFL students in general and ESP students, in particular, had better understand the necessity of technology in giving students opportunities

to develop their creativity, gain their autonomy in their learning process, motivation and contact with the language they are learning (Banados, 2006; Hafner & Miller, 2011). Similarly, they are supposed to pay enough attention to what the teacher instructs in class, participate with others to complete the tasks, practice the language as much as possible through the activities so that they can grow their language competencies as explained by Canale (2014).

## REFERENCES

- Agca, R. K., & Özdemir, S. (2013). Foreign language vocabulary learning with mobile technologies. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 83, 781-785.
- Banados, E. (2006). A blended-learning pedagogical model for teaching and learning EFL successfully through an online interactive multimedia environment. *CALICO journal*, 533-550.
- Bishop, J. L., & Verleger, M. A. (2013). *The flipped classroom: A survey of the research*. Paper presented at the ASEE National Conference Proceedings, Atlanta, GA.
- Bojovic, M. (2006). *Teaching foreign languages for specific purposes: Teacher development*. Paper presented at the The proceedings of the 31st Annual Association of Teacher Education Conference.
- Brookfield, S. D. (2015). *The skillful teacher: On technique, trust, and responsiveness in the classroom*: John Wiley & Sons.
- Brutt-Griffler, J. (2002). *World English: A study of its development* (Vol. 34): Multilingual Matters.
- Cahyani, H., & Cahyono, B. Y. (2012). Teachers' attitudes and technology use in Indonesian EFL classrooms. *Teflin Journal*, 23(2), 130-148.
- Canale, M. (2014). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In *Language and communication* (pp. 14-40): Routledge.
- Cao, J. (2014). A survey on ESP teaching in Changchun University of Science and Technology. *Theory and Practice in Language studies*, 4(12), 2507.
- Carver, D. (1983). Some propositions about ESP. *The ESP journal*, 2(2), 131-137.
- Chase, M., Macfadyen, L. P., Reeder, K., & Roche, J. (2002). *Intercultural challenges in networked learning: Hard technologies meet soft skills*. University of British Columbia,
- Chinnery, G. M. (2006). Emerging technologies. Going to the mall: mobile assisted language learning. *Language learning & technology*, 10(1), 9-16.
- Dogoriti, E., & Pange, J. (2012). *Teaching ESP with ICT in higher education: Foreign language teachers' perceptions and expectations of computer technology use in foreign*

- language learning and teaching*. Paper presented at the Proc. International Conference on Information & Communication Technologies in Education.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Motivation in second and foreign language learning. *Language Teaching*, 31(3), 117-135.
- Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*: Cambridge university press.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning.
- Golonka, E. M., Bowles, A. R., Frank, V. M., Richardson, D. L., & Freynik, S. (2014). Technologies for foreign language learning: a review of technology types and their effectiveness. *Computer assisted language learning*, 27(1), 70-105.
- Granger, S., Hung, J., & Petch-Tyson, S. (2002). *Computer learner corpora, second language acquisition, and foreign language teaching* (Vol. 6): John Benjamins Publishing.
- Grant, L., & Gareis, C. (2015). *Teacher-made assessments: How to connect curriculum, instruction, and student learning*: Routledge.
- Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297.
- Hafner, C. A., & Miller, L. (2011). Fostering learner autonomy in English for science: A collaborative digital video project in a technological learning environment.
- Hampel, R. (2009). Training teachers for the multimedia age: developing teacher expertise to enhance online learner interaction and collaboration. *International Journal of Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 3(1), 35-50.
- Harding, K. (2007). English for specific purposes.
- Harris, K. S., & Rogers, G. E. (2008). Soft skills in the technology education classroom: What do students need. *Technology teacher*, 68(3), 19-24.
- Hasbullah, H., & Sulaiman, S. (2002). *Industrial internship programme at Universiti Teknologi Petronas—a collaboration strategy that enhanced students' soft skills in the ever-changing technology*. Paper presented at the International conference on engineering education.
- Hoa, N. (2016). Difficulties in Teaching English for Specific Purposes: Empirical Study at Vietnam Universities. *Higher Education Studies*, 6(2), 154-161.
- Hong, L. (2001). Development of ESP and Joint Teaching [J]. *Foreign Language Education*, 1, 007.

- Hung, S. T. (2011). Pedagogical applications of Vlogs: An investigation into ESP learners' perceptions. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 42(5), 736-746.
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes*: Cambridge University Press.
- Hwang, C. C. (2005). Effective EFL education through popular authentic materials. *Asian EFL journal*, 7(1), 90-101.
- İlin, G., Kutlu, Ö., & Kutluay, A. (2013). An action research: Using videos for teaching grammar in an ESP class. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 272-281.
- İlter, B. G. (2009). Effect of technology on motivation in EFL classrooms. *Turkish online journal of distance education*, 10(4).
- Jenkins, J. (2014). *Global Englishes: A resource book for students*: Routledge.
- Kachru, B. B. (1990). World Englishes and applied linguistics. *World Englishes*, 9(1), 3-20.
- Kaur, S. (2007). ESP course design: Matching learner needs to aims. *English for Specific Purposes*, 6(1), 25-37.
- Kilickaya, F. (2004). Authentic materials and cultural content in EFL classrooms. *Online Submission*, 10(7).
- Kregor, G., Breslin, M., & Fountain, W. (2012). Experience and beliefs of technology users at an Australian university: Keys to maximising e-learning potential. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 28(8).
- Laurillard, D. (2002). *Rethinking university teaching: A conversational framework for the effective use of learning technologies*: Routledge.
- Le Ha, P. (2008). *Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance and negotiation*: Multilingual Matters.
- Lee, C.-L. (2016). Principles and Practices of ESP Course Design—A Case Study of a University of Science and Technology. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 15(2).
- Maleki, A. (2008). ESP teaching: a matter of controversy. *ESP World*, 1, 17.
- Norbrook, H., & Scott, P. (2003). *Motivation in mobile modern foreign language learning*. Paper presented at the MLEARN.
- Ottenbreit-Leftwich, A. T., Glazewski, K. D., Newby, T. J., & Ertmer, P. A. (2010). Teacher value beliefs associated with using technology: Addressing professional and student needs. *Computers & Education*, 55(3), 1321-1335.
- Oxford, R. L., & Shearin, J. (1996). Language learning motivation in a new key. *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century*, 11, 121-144.

- Park, G. P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean university students. *Foreign language annals*, 30(2), 211-221.
- Peacock, M. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. *ELT journal*, 51(2), 144-156.
- Peacock, M. (2001). Language learning strategies and EAP proficiency: Teacher views, student views, and test results. *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes*, 268-285.
- Pennycook, A. (2006). *Global Englishes and transcultural flows*: Routledge.
- Pham, H. A., & Ta, B. T. (2016). Developing a theoretical framework for ESP teacher training in Vietnam. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 12(1), 66-84.
- Poedjiastutie, D. (2017). The pedagogical challenges of English for specific purposes (ESP) teaching at the University of Muhammadiyah Malang, Indonesia. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 12(6), 338-349.
- Richards, J. C. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Richards, J. C. (2008). Second language teacher education today. *RELJ Journal*, 39(2), 158-177.
- Richards, J. C., & Renandya, W. A. (2002). *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice*: Cambridge university press.
- Roblyer, M. D., & Doering, A. H. (2006). *Integrating educational technology into teaching* (Vol. 2): Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall Upper Saddle River, NJ.
- Rose, D. H., Meyer, A., Strangman, N., & Rappolt, G. (2002). Teaching every student in the digital age: Universal design for learning.
- Salaberry, M. R. (2001). The use of technology for second language learning and teaching: A retrospective. *The modern language journal*, 85(1), 39-56.
- Shyamlee, S. D., & Phil, M. (2012). *Use of technology in English language teaching and learning*: an analysis. Paper presented at the International Conference on Language, Medias and Culture.
- Sifakis, N. C. (2003). Applying the adult education framework to ESP curriculum development: an integrative model1. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(2), 195-211.
- Su, H.-H. (2010). English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in technological and vocational higher education in Taiwan. In: Chaoyang University of Technology.
- Su, H.-H., & Weng, C.-Y. (2012). Current situation of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) curriculum at Chaoyang University of Technology (CYUT)-a pilot study.

- Tsao, C.-H., Wei, A. M., & Fang, A. S. (2008). *ESP for college students in Taiwan: A survey of student and faculty perceptions*. Paper presented at the 2008 International Symposium on ESP & Its Application in Nursing & Medical English Education.
- Vaičiūnienė, V., & Užpalienė, D. (2010). Authentic resources in technology-based ESP learning. *Studies about languages*, 17, 94-98.
- Van Khanh, N. (2015). Towards Improving ESP Teaching/Learning in Vietnam's Higher Education Institutions: Integrating Project-Based Learning into ESP Courses.
- Warden, C. A., & Lin, H. J. (2000). Existence of integrative motivation in an Asian EFL setting. *Foreign language annals*, 33(5), 535-545.
- Warschauer, M. (1997). Computer-mediated collaborative learning: Theory and practice. *The modern language journal*, 81(4), 470-481.
- Wiebe, G., & Kabata, K. (2010). Students' and instructors' attitudes toward the use of CALL in foreign language teaching and learning. *Computer assisted language learning*, 23(3), 221-234.
- Wu, H., & Badger, R. G. (2009). In a strange and uncharted land: ESP teachers' strategies for dealing with unpredicted problems in subject knowledge during class. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(1), 19-32.
- Wu, W., & Wu, P. (2008). Creating and authentic EFL learning environment to enhance student motivation to study English. *Asian EFL journal*, 10(4), 211-226.
- Živković, S. (2016). The ESP Technology-Supported Learning Environment. *European Journal of Social Sciences Education and Research*, 6(1), 154-162.



## **Enhancing Pronunciation Acquirement Based on Visual-Auditory System**

**Haruko Miyakoda**

*Tsuda University<sup>1</sup>, Japan*

### **Biodata**

Haruko Miyakoda is Professor of Linguistics at Tsuda University, Tokyo, Japan. Her research interests include phonological theories and their application to acquisition. She obtained her doctoral degree from Sophia University. She can be reached at [miyakoda@tsuda.ac.jp](mailto:miyakoda@tsuda.ac.jp).

### **Abstract**

According to a large-scale survey conducted by the Ministry of Education, 6.5% of elementary and secondary students are diagnosed as having some kind of developmental disability (MEXT 2012). In the case of Japan, this means that at least two or three students per class in public schools are assumed to have some kind of learning disability. One of the major concerns among educators now is how to deal with dyslexia. Up until now, dyslexia had been an L1 issue. However, since 2011, when English became a mandatory subject in elementary schools in Japan, teachers today are expected to deal with students who face extreme learning difficulties in L2.

In this paper, we present the visual-auditory system that we have developed for enhancing phonological awareness among learners with dyslexia. It is a practical and productive software that should be enjoyable to use not only for the pathological population but also for learners of L2.

**Keywords:** Dyslexia, Phonological awareness, Visual-auditory system

---

<sup>1</sup>2-1-1 Tsuda-machi Kodaira-shi, Tokyo 187-8577 JAPAN



## Introduction

A large-scale survey conducted by the Ministry of Education has revealed the fact that 6.5% of elementary and secondary students are diagnosed as having some kind of developmental disability (MEXT 2012). In the case of Japan, this means that at least two or three students per class in public schools have some kind of learning disability. Among the various types of learning disabilities, one of the major concerns among educators now is how to deal with dyslexia.

According to the International Dyslexia Association, dyslexia can be defined as a specific learning disability that often results from a deficit in phonological processing including word segmentation and sound-letter correspondences (retrieved from <https://dyslexiaida.org/definition-of-dyslexia/>). The problem in phonological processing often leads to symptoms including slow reading and naming in addition to poor decoding skills as well. Up until now, dyslexia had been an L1 issue. However, since 2011, when English became a mandatory subject in elementary schools in Japan, teachers today are expected to deal with students who face extreme learning difficulties in L2. The number of students that need special attention in the classroom is expected to increase drastically and measures must be taken immediately to remedy the situation.

Previous studies have reported that phonological awareness, particularly phonemic awareness, plays an important role in effective reading (Snowling (2000), Hara (2017)). Therefore, in order to enhance the English reading/ writing ability of dyslexic learners, it is vital to promote their phonemic awareness.

The general trend nowadays is to lay emphasis on the communicative factor, and there are several studies suggesting that focusing on the suprasegmental element in pronunciation teaching has an impact on the comprehensibility of learners' output (e.g. Nakashima (2006)). There is agreement among some researchers that the suprasegmental errors observed in L2 speakers have more serious effect on intelligibility than segmental ones. For example, in one study, two groups of L2 students of English received instruction in segmental and suprasegmental features respectively (Derwing et al. (1998)). The result of this study indicated that in terms of narrative reading, only pronunciation teaching based on suprasegmental features had any effect on the comprehensibility of the learners' production. However, we find inconsistent results in the literature. For example, Jenkins (2000), based on data collected from six learners of English, maintained that instruction in segments should be prioritized over

suprasegmentals. The learners, two Japanese, three Swiss-German, and one Swiss-French, were instructed to engage in various pair work that included social conversation, information exchange and problem solving tasks. When analyzing the interaction that took place between the receiver and the interlocutor, Jenkins found that out of the 40 cases where the receiver could not understand the intended meaning of his/her interlocutor, 27 were designated as cases of difficulty in producing segments. Based on this finding, she concluded that instruction in segments should be prioritized.

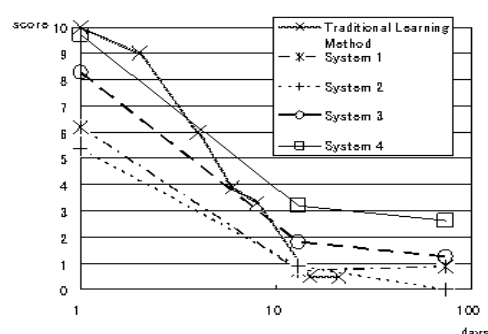
Although there is no denying the fact that both segmental and suprasegmental aspects play significant roles in pronunciation, instruction in segments may be a good starting point, especially for dyslexic learners to enhance their awareness for L2 phonemes. Since pronunciation involves the physical aspect of language, it would be beneficial for these learners to locate the muscles that they need to make the individual sounds of the foreign language, especially those that do not exist in their native tongue before focusing on the higher prosodic levels.

### **The role of visuals in language learning**

In developing a pronunciation learning system, one of the first decisions that need to be made is what kind of information to include in the system. Of course, no one can deny the use of auditory data for this type of system, but our main concern was whether in addition to auditory data, was there the need to take visual data into consideration. In the field of vocabulary learning, for instance, there are many studies supporting the effectiveness of visual data, yet there is no consensus among the studies as to what type of visual data promotes the learning process (cf. Al-Seyghayar (2001), Yeh & Wang (2003)).

Since incompatible results based on different experiments have been reported in the literature, we conducted an experiment that compared vocabulary learning based on the following four methods: 1) learning the words with game-oriented activity (System 1); 2) learning the words within contexts (System 2); 3) learning the words with their pronunciations (System 3); and 4) learning the words with their image data (System 4). We compared the effectiveness of the systems by conducting a vocabulary memorization experiment that consisted of three tests over 11 weeks. The first test was carried out just after the exercise, the second one after 2 to 3 weeks, and the third one after 10 to 11 weeks. 11 undergraduate students attending a university in Tokyo participated in the experiment.

Figure 1. *Comparison of test results of different methods of learning*



The graph in Figure 1 summarizes the test results of Systems 1 through 4 depicted above together with the result obtained for the traditional so-called “paper-and-pencil” learning method. The results demonstrate that learning by System 4 (i.e. the system using visual data) is the most effective in the long run.

We also conducted six patterns of the t-tests between the system scores of each pair in order to determine whether a significant difference can be observed. The result indicated that the learning effect is highest when both auditory and visual information are employed in the learning process. This finding suggests that combining these two types of information would be effective in the pronunciation learning system as well.

### **The visual element in pronunciation**

The findings obtained from our experiment on vocabulary learning seem to support the viewpoint that visual data does indeed play a role in language learning. In this section, we briefly review some of the research findings concerning the use of visual element in pronunciation.

Research in the field of phonology has long been dominated by a focus on the auditory aspect. However, in actual face-to-face communication, a significant source of information about the sounds a speaker produces comes from visual cues such as lip movements (Hardison (2007), McGurk & MacDonald (1976)). There are some studies that have reported that the information value of visual cues can be improved with training. In one study, hearing-impaired adults were trained in visual consonant recognition. After a total of 14 hours of training, the

accuracy rate for the recognition of consonants showed dramatic improvement. For example, in the recognition of /r/, which was the most improved of all the consonants trained, the accuracy is reported to have increased from 36.1% to 88.6% after the training (Walden et al. (1977)).

Although studies on the potential benefits of auditory-visual speech training for L2 learners has only recently started to gain focus, the importance of lip shapes as beneficial cues has long been recognized by language instructors in teaching English as a second language. For example, a study claiming that the degree of difficulty that lies in acquiring the phonemes of a foreign language may be due to the difference in visual cues had already been published more than 40 years ago (Goto (1971)). In this study, the difficulty that Japanese learners of English face in making the distinction between /r/ and /l/ is taken up. While this difficulty is usually attributed to the fact that these two phonemes do not exist in the language, Goto claims that the difficulty is due to the fact that there is the disadvantage of not being able to “read the lips of the speaker”.

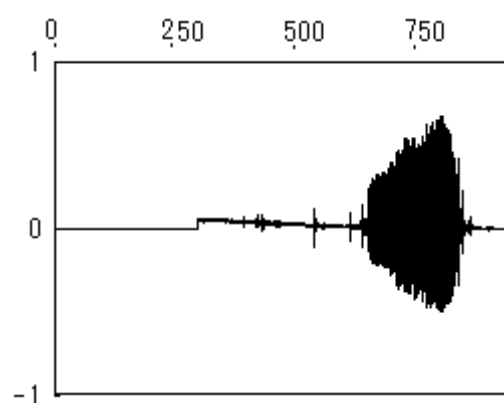
## **The system**

Based on the findings of previous studies, we decided that our pronunciation system should be characterized by the following two features: 1) making good use of visual data; 2) focusing on segmental rather than suprasegmental factors.

As indicated in the previous section, the contribution of visual cues to the understanding of individual speech sounds goes back several decades and there is nothing new about the concept itself. A traditional pronunciation drill book, for instance, states that “you should feel your lips and tongue move and your jaw drop lower, then rise again as you go from one sound to the other. Use a mirror to watch your mouth produce the sounds.” (Orion (1987)). However, the major problem to this “mirror” approach as well as the other “traditional” approaches based on visual cues is that the movement of the tongue cannot be made clear since it takes place inside the mouth, making it difficult to visualize.

The advent of computers has allowed learners to display visual cues of sound in a more “sophisticated” way. In current pronunciation software, for example, the recordings of the user are displayed as frequency charts as depicted in Figure 2:

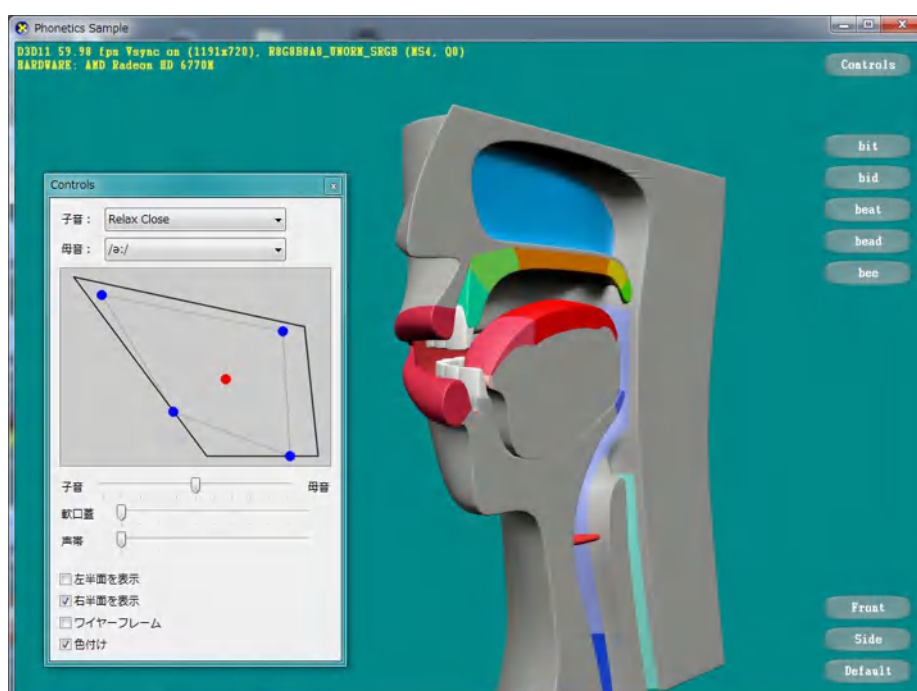
Figure 2: *An example of a frequency chart*



Technology now allows learners to easily convert sound data into these sophisticated digital representations. However, this type of chart can, at times, be quite useless unless one receives formal training on how to interpret these charts. Even then, it is still hard to link them into actual physical action.

With the pronunciation system that we have developed, the users have access to the speech organs from two different angles: i.e., the side view and the front view. Figure 3 depicts a sample view of the system.

Figure 3: *Sample view of the speech organs*



Each speech organ is distinguished by using different colors. When the user selects a certain phoneme by using the controllers on the left side of the screen, the speech organs will indicate the necessary movements to produce the phoneme. For example, if the user inputs the phonemes /b/-/i/-/t/, the speech organs will move accordingly. This way of showing the movement of the speech organs is especially effective for dyslexic learners, since stimulating different sensory channels including visual, auditory, tactile and kinesthetic abilities of these learners is said to be effective in enhancing their awareness towards sound-letter correspondences (retrieved from: <https://www.orton-gillingham.com/>).

At present, the user must manually manipulate each phoneme using the controllers, but we are planning to link the visual representations to a speech recognition system for use in autonomous learning.

## Conclusion

In this paper, we reported on the pronunciation system that we are developing. The two main features of the system are: making good use of visual data and focusing on the segments rather than the suprasegmentals. This is a practical and productive pronunciation software that should be enjoyable for use especially for the dyslexic population struggling with weakness in L2 phonological processing and production.

## References

- Al-Seyghayar, K. (2001) The effect of multimedia notation modes on L2 vocabulary acquisition: a comparative study, *Language Learning and Technology*, (pp. 202-232).
- Derwing, T.M., Munro, M.J., and Wiebe G. (1998) Pronunciation instruction “fossilized” learners: Can it help?, *Applied Language Learning* 8, (pp.185-203).
- Goto, H. (1971). Auditory perception by normal Japanese adults of the sounds “l” and “r”., *Neuropsychologia* 9, (pp. 317-323).
- Hara, K. (2017). Nihongo de yomikaki shogai no aru jido seito no sugata [Developmental dyslexia in Japanese people]. *Japanese Journal of Learning Disabilities* 26 (2). (pp. 173-176).
- Hardison, D.M. (2007).The visual element in phonological perception and learning, In M.

- C. Pennington (Ed.), *Phonology in Context*, (pp. 135-158), London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hasegawa, K. , Ishikawa, M., Kaneko, K. Miyakoda, H. & Tsukahara, W. (2008). Creation of vocabulary learning materials by learners and its evaluation. *Proceedings of World Conference on Educational Multimedia, Hypermedia & Telecommunication*, (pp. 5953-5961).
- Jenkins, J. (2000). *The Phonology of English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McGurk, H. & MacDonald, J. (1976). "Hearing lips and seeing voices", *Nature* 264, 746-748.
- MEXT [Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology] (2012). Tsuujoyou no gakkyuuni zaisekisu hattatsushougai no kanouseino aru tokubetsuna kyouikutekishien wo hitsuyoutosuru jidouseito ni kansuru chousaekka nit suite [Investigation results of children with learning disabilities who need special attention in the classroom]. Retrieved on April 20, 2018 from: [http://www.mext.go.jp/a\\_menu/shotou/tokubetu/material/\\_icsFiles/afieldfile/2012/12/10/1328729\\_01.pdf](http://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/tokubetu/material/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2012/12/10/1328729_01.pdf)
- Nakashima, T. (2006). Intelligibility, suprasegmentals, and L2 pronunciation instruction for EFL Japanese learners. *Fukuoka Kyouikudaigaku Kiyō* 55 (1), (pp. 27-42).
- Orion, G.F. (1987). *Pronouncing American English*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Snowling, M. J. (2000). *Dyslexia* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Walden, B. E., Prosek, R.A., Montgomery, A.A., Scherr, C.K., & Jones, C.J. (1977). Effects of training on the visual recognition of consonants, *Journal of Speech and Hearing Research* 20, (pp. 130-145)
- Yeh, Y. and Wang, C. (2003). Effects of multimedia vocabulary annotations and learning styles on vocabulary learning, *CALICO Journal* 21 (1), (pp. 131-144).



## **Test Anxiety and Writing Proficiency of College Students in Western Mindanao**

*Claire Agana- Madrazo, Ph.D.*

*Western Mindanao State University*

*claire.madrazo@wmsu.edu.ph*

### **Abstract**

The test anxiety survey questionnaire and writing proficiency test were administered to 108 college students of Western Mindanao State University, Zamboanga City. Anxiety is defined by Field (2004) as an affective factor which could affect attention and may cause negative impact in language learning. Other research studies in this field assume that anxiety can have both positive and negative effects on language learning performance (Lehrer, Goldman & Strommen, 1990). It can be beneficial on EFL students when exposed with a "little stress" to be able to focus and to aim for accuracy in their writing performance. Brown (2007) supports this assumption as a little stress pertaining to the task or activity may be facilitative, in that, establishing certain level of stress through challenge or discipline shall lead students to concentrate and to strive for higher learning outcome. In contrast, Sarason (1984) views anxiety as causing the students' worry and insecurity. Lack of trust in one's ability in the evaluation process is the main factor that can cause less focus on tasks performance. In a more current research on writing anxiety, Hanna (2010) found that highly apprehensive or stressed writers yielded low quality papers as their output, avoided writing assignment and even procrastinated compared to students with low apprehensive or stress level. The present study hypothesize that students who elicit "considerable" or "average" level of anxiety would yield good writing proficiency. However, data show that there is no significant relationship between the students' anxiety level and writing proficiency which would imply that test anxiety level is not a factor to determine the students' writing performance.



## Introduction

Test anxiety can develop for a number of reasons. There may be some prior negative experience on a test or the inability to perform in a testing experience with test taking that serves as the activating event. Students who have these situations can develop anticipatory anxiety. Worrying about how anxiety will affect one can be as debilitating as the anxiety itself. This kind of anxiety can build as the testing situation approaches, and can interfere with the student's ability to prepare adequately. Lack of preparation is another factor that can contribute to test anxiety. Poor time management, poor study habits, and lack of organization can also lead to a student feeling overwhelmed. Students who are forced to cram at the last minute will feel less confident about the material covered than those who have been able to follow a structured plan for studying. Being able to anticipate what the test will cover, and knowing all the information covered during the study sessions, can help students to enter the testing situation with a more positive attitude (Musch, 1999).

It is good to be concerned about a test. It is not good to get test anxiety. This is excessive worry about doing well on a test and it can mean disaster for a student. Students who suffer from test anxiety tend to worry about success in school, especially doing well on tests. They worry about the future, and are extremely self-critical. Instead of feeling challenged by the prospect of success, they become afraid of failure. This makes them anxious about tests and their own abilities. Ultimately, they become so worked up that they feel incompetent about the subject-matter or the test. It doesn't help to tell the child to relax, to think about something else, or stop worrying (Davis, 1993). Consequently, knowing students' test anxiety level will greatly contribute in English Language Teaching in the classroom as this will provide answers to the declining proficiency level of students specifically in writing.

Of note, writing has been the heart of the English class. In one form or another, it is constant. It has been read, done or prepared. Writing invests students with an authority that challenges them to ask themselves and express in language what they know. Testing the writing skills involves having students write about a topic. Issues of interest to both researchers and classroom teachers—topic design, directions, content-fair topics, purposes for testing, and evaluation methods—have been discussed for decades (Brossell, 1982; Cooper & O'Dell, 1977).

A brief survey of the research on writing suggests that any successful writing program includes the following: Opportunity to write and the time necessary to work through the process of thinking and ultimately, writing; focus on the developmental sequence (moving from personal to analytical writing); an active role for students, minimal teacher dominance and natural

emergence of writing out of other activities; and non-threatening evaluation of student writing that focuses on first establishing fluency before correctness ( Holbrook, 1984).

Hence, the intent of the study was to present empirical data, as substantial evidence, on the students' levels of test anxiety and their levels of writing proficiency. Specifically, the meat of the study was to correlate the WMSU College students' levels of test anxiety and their levels of writing proficiency.

### **Statement of the Problem**

This study attempted to determine the test anxiety and writing proficiency of the Western Mindanao State University college students. Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions: (1) What is the test anxiety level of the following college students classified according to gender and course?; (2) What is the writing proficiency level of college students based on the following: (a) components (content, vocabulary, organization, language use, mechanics); (b) gender; (c) course; (3) Is there a significant difference in the test anxiety level of the college students when data are grouped according to gender?; (4) Is there a significant difference in the test anxiety level of college students when data are classified according to course? (5) Is there a significant difference in the writing proficiency of the college students when data are grouped according to gender?; (6) Is there a significant difference in the writing proficiency level of the college students when data are grouped according to course? (7) Is there a significant relationship between the test anxiety and the writing proficiency levels of college students based on the following components: content, vocabulary, organization, language use, mechanics?

### **Scope and Delimitation of the Study**

This study was delimited to Test Anxiety and Writing Proficiency of College students of the Western Mindanao State University. The subjects of this study were the freshmen students enrolled in the second semester of School Year 2005-2006. Utilizing the simple random systematic listing sampling, thirty (30) students from each group of AB Pol. Sci., BSEd and BSN students were considered as respondents. This yielded a total population of ninety (90) respondents.

This study was also delimited to the hypothesized significant difference in the test anxiety level of college students when data were grouped according to gender, a significant difference in the test anxiety level of college students when data were grouped according to course, a significant difference in the writing proficiency of the college students when data were grouped

according to gender, as well as, a significant difference in the writing proficiency of the college students when data were grouped according to course. It was further delimited to the hypothesized significant relationship between the test anxiety and the writing proficiency levels of the Western Mindanao State University college students, as well as, the hypothesized significant relationship between the college students' test anxiety and writing proficiency when data were grouped according to gender and course.

## **Literature Review**

### *Test and Performance Anxieties*

Many students experience some nervousness or apprehension before, during, or after an examination. This kind of anxiety can be a powerful motivator. However, some students experience test-related anxiety to such a degree that it can lead to poor performance and interfere with learning (Internet and SUNY at Buffalo, St. Thomas University, 2005).

At least five to six percent of secondary school students wrestle with test anxiety, severe enough to mess with their minds, make them miserable, and significantly lower their performance on important tests. These students must be identified and must be given a hand out of their personal pain and confusion. Test anxiety is one learner characteristic that is applicable to educational practice (Printrich & Schunk, 1996). Most prominent researchers in the area (Hedel, 1972; Sarason 1975; Spielberg, 1972; Trent & Maxwell, 1980) have viewed test anxiety as a relatively stable personality characteristic that prompts an individual to react to threatening situations with sometimes psychological, physiological, and behavioral responses. There is an extensive amount of empirical evidence of the negative effects of test anxiety on academic performance. For example, in meta-analysis of five hundred sixty two studies that related test anxiety and academic achievement, Hembree (1988) found that test anxiety routinely causes poor performance. Hill and Wigfield (1984) reported studies with correlations.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) looked in more detail at anxiety in the classroom. The greatest anxiety seems to relate to negative experiences in speaking activities. This would confirm the experience of many teachers, but the suggestion that arises from such studies, that anxiety is a response learned through early experiences and that it can increase until the whole process of learning is badly affected, emphasizes the need for "humanistic" approaches in the widest sense of the word. It implies that teachers have both the power and the responsibility to counter the development of anxiety by building self-confidence through positive early experiences,

through providing reassuring feedback, through promoting self-perception of developing proficiency to include writing.

Krashen (1985) as cited by Hedge (2000) has suggested the notion of the *affective filter*. This is a representation of the way in which affective factors such as attitude, anxiety, competitiveness, and other emotional responses can help or hinder language learning. The filter can be imagined as a sliding barrier which moves into place when a student is, for example, tired, dispirited, tense, or angry, and which prevents the processing of input. A learner who has generally negative attitudes towards learning English will have a high affective filter and the task for the teacher will be substantial. The precise functioning of this filter is not explained, for example in relation to how it might affect the attention that students pay or do not pay to various elements of input. However, the concept of filter highlights the role of the teacher in creating beneficial conditions for language learning.

Although there has been little conclusive evidence on the role of affective factors, some studies have proved to be of value to the teacher in challenging common assumptions and in suggesting areas of concern. Hence, this study is conceptualized to further investigate the possibility of whether or not, there is a significant relationship between the students' test anxiety levels and their writing proficiency levels.

#### *Symptoms of Test Anxiety*

- Physical- headaches or diarrhea, extreme body temperature changes, excessive sweating, shortness of breath, lightheadedness or fainting, rapid heart beat, and dry mouth;
- Emotional- excessive feelings of fear, disappointment, anger, depression, uncontrollable crying or laughing, feelings of helplessness;
- Behavioral- fidgeting, pacing, substance abuse, avoidance;
- Cognitive- racing thoughts, "going blank", difficulty concentrating, negative self-talk, feelings of dread, comparing oneself to others, difficulty organizing one's thoughts;

If one experiences test or performance anxiety, one is not alone. Approximately 20% of US college students experience symptoms of test anxiety and most athletes and artists experience performance anxiety at some point in their careers ( Driscoll, 2004 ).

#### *Tips for Reducing Test Anxiety ( Davis, 1993 )*

- Preparation- Develop good study habits, spreading studying over several days; ask for additional help when needed; eat good food, get adequate rest and exercise to build

energy; attend class regularly and complete all assignments in timely manner; make and practice tests.

- **Keep Positive Attitude-** Develop reasonable expectations; do not allow the grades to become dependent on the outcome of one's test ; avoid negative and irrational thoughts and catastrophic results; set up a system of rewards for dedicated studying and good test performance; encourage oneself.
- **Relaxation Techniques-** Deep breathing exercises, imagery and visualization and muscle relaxation techniques can help to increase focus and concentration; don't arrive too early or get distracted by others preparing for the test ; check to make sure one has everything needed for the examination.
- **Learn good test-taking skills-** Do not panic if something can't be remembered right away; easy questions should be answered first , and return to other ones; read questions and directions carefully before beginning; outline essays before starting to write; keep short-answers concise; don't spend time reviewing answers.

*Basic Principles dealing with Test Anxiety ( Davis, 1993 )*

- **Be healthy:** If one is physically and emotionally exhausted , his body and mind are less able to tolerate stress and anxiety. One can improve resistance to anxiety by getting adequate rest, eating appropriately, and taking care of one's physical health. If there's no time to be healthy, consider seeking assistance with time management.
- **Be Prepared:** Keep on practicing and studying. It sounds repetitive, but nothing can help reduce anxiety like confidence. In fact, if one over-prepares a bit, his responses become more automatic, and the performance will be less affected by anxiety. Preparation for a test may include improving the study and test-taking skills. Be on time and have all the "tools" needed for the examination.
- **Practice the performance:** The time limits of an exam, tied score game or the audience at one's performance are all stimuli that increase the level of arousal and add to one's experience of anxiety. If one practices under similar conditions, one becomes less sensitive to these stimuli.
- **Regulate the Arousal Level:** In cases of anxiety, the goal is to lower the level of arousal. Some of the most effective ways involve altering your physical responses like breathing and muscle tension.

- **Control the Fear:** The underlying source of test or performance anxiety is the fear of failure. Pay attention to what one is thinking and saying to oneself in anxious situations. This self-talk likely reflects an expectation by changing one's self-talk.

### *Arousal and Anxiety*

In order to perform well in a challenging scenario, one must be psychologically and physically alert. This level of “alertness” is also called arousal. Some degree of arousal is essential for optimal performance. Increasing arousal is the idea behind “psyching up”— and it works—in many cases, psyching up enhances performance. The problem is that when the intensity of arousal gets too high, we often begin to feel nervous and tense and experience anxiety. At this level, anxiety becomes distracting and performance declines— “psyched out”. For optimal performance, one needs to keep his arousal at an intermediate level—psyched up, but certainly not psyched out.

### *Optimal Arousal*

When psyched up, one will be able to focus on the task at hand and performance will be natural. When psyched out and anxiety takes over, one may experience: distracting thoughts of failure, an inability to pick out important environmental cues, becoming distracted by irrelevant environmental cues, interpreting the results of physical arousal (muscle tension, heart rate, respiration) as signs of fear, excessive muscle tension, attempting to avoid or escape the situation giving up

### *General Strategies in Helping Students Cope with Test Anxiety*

- **Make the first exam relatively easy.** Research on motivation indicates that early success in a course increase students' motivation and confidence (Lucas, 1990). In particular, students who do well on the first test generally improve their grades on subsequent tests (Gusky, 1988).
- **Give more than one examination.** The length of the school term, the difficulty level of the course, and the amount of course material, all determine the number of exams an instructor gives. Periodic testing during the term has been shown to improve students' performance on the final exam (Lowman, 1984). Giving two or more midterm exams also spreads out the pressure, allows students to concentrate on one chunk of material at a time, and allows students and instructors to monitor progress.
- **Avoid “pop” quizzes.** Unannounced or surprise quizzes may penalize students who are unable to prepare for every single class meeting. (Jacobs and Chase, 1992)

- Give students advice on how to study. Help students develop appropriate study strategies to organize and understand information from the assigned readings and class notes. Consult with your student learning center for information. (Mealy and Host, 1992).
- Encourage students to study in groups. According to researchers, students who study in groups recall more information than students working alone and are able to overcome their feelings of academic inadequacy and isolation.
- Schedule extra office hours before a test. Some instructors schedule extra office hours for the week or so before an exam to give students a chance to ask questions and go over difficult aspects of the material. They especially encourage study groups to visit during office hours.
- Ask students how they can be helped to feel less anxious. Students often make a request that faculty can easily accommodate, such as providing information about the test format, offering a review session, or refraining from walking around during exam.

#### *Affective Domain- Anxiety*

According to Macintyre and Gardner (1991), the research on anxiety suggests that, like self-esteem, anxiety can be experienced at various levels. At the deepest level, test anxiety is a more permanent predisposition to be anxious. Three components of foreign language anxiety have been identified in order to break down the construct into researchable issues and one of which is test anxiety or apprehension over academic evaluation. Phillips (1992) considers that the feeling of “test anxiety” before a big examination is familiar to all. Both too much and too little anxiety may hinder the process of successful second language learning.

#### *Test Anxiety and Intelligence Quotient (IQ) Test*

Bingham (1937), as cited by Madrazo (2005), posited that intelligence was measured in terms of the following: (a) the level of difficulty of the problems one can solve; (b) the range or numbers of problems one can solve at that level; and (c) the speed with which one can solve at that level. Without recourse to language, the processes of comparison, abstraction, generalization and mental organization would be limited indeed. With the aid of verbal symbols, it is easier dealing with problems to manipulate meanings and test possible solutions of the difficulties mentally before acting. Little wonder then, that a good test of vocabulary is of use as an indirect measure of a person’s verbal or conceptual intelligence and for two reasons. First, the richer one’s store of words and meanings, the better one’s equipment for solving some of his problems promptly and correctly, that is, for showing intelligence since

infancy, the greater the likelihood that the learner has gained command of a wide variety of correct word meanings. Intelligence is far from being identical with the power to read understandingly, to speak aptly, or to write coherently and concisely. But the reciprocal relations between mastery of mother tongue and ability to think intelligently should be obvious. The good point holds here with regard to the command of mathematical tools of thoughts—the brighter the boy, the more arithmetic and algebra he absorbs, and in turn the more easily he solves quantitative problems. These assumptions were validated in the form of a measurement scale. So, to capture the essence of measuring cognitive abilities, a traditional intelligence scale was designed. Historically, it is well known that the Binet-Simon scale had its origin in the need of the Parisian schools for an instrument with which to estimate a pupil's probable rate of progress and to segregate those who could scarcely be expected to benefit from the usual formal instruction. Royce (1964) states that intelligence is a quantitative term that refers to the amount of measurable operation expected from this power as cited by Terman and Binet, the power to abstract. This means the power to sift out from concrete sensory data the principles of things, thus to deal effectively with one's environment which is essentially Wechsler's definition.

Currently, there are still several advocates of IQ testing patterned after Binet's concept as evidenced in the Internet IQ Test with test components such as Verbal Abilities, Abstract and Quantitative Abilities useful to help students to be aware of their capacity and limitation and to mentally practice and improve and eventually to pass in any given Aptitude test, be it, a College Entrance Test or Job Application locally or globally.

What is the relevance of IQ Test to Test Anxiety? This study aims to investigate whether or not Test Anxiety has significant relationship with writing proficiency which is an essay examination. Several accounts have been made (as previously discussed) that there is a positive correlation between test anxiety and academic achievements of students. However, the proponents of the IQ test from the past and in the present are consistent in their assumption that no matter how nervous a student maybe, if the IQ level of the student is over 140 which is “very superior”, then satisfactory writing proficiency can certainly be achieved; but, if the IQ level of the student is below 70 which is mentally retarded, then no matter how relaxed the student may be, then poor writing proficiency will be resulted in an essay examination.

#### *Language Proficiency*

According to Brown (1994) language testing research was gradually pointing to the viability of the hypothesis that language proficiency consists of several distinct abilities, but the research of the 1980s was not in any way a return to discrete point testing. Far from it, instead,



researchers were – and continue to be, focused on the components of communicative competence in their efforts to specify the multiple language traits that must be measured in a valid test. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are but one dimension of a multi-trait approach to testing. In fact, Bachman's (1990) model of communicative language proficiency has become a template for experimenting with a multiplicity of methods of language assessment.

### *Language Proficiency Test*

Brown (1994) as cited by Rondina (2001) asserts that if the aim in the test is to tap global competence in a language, the test is measuring proficiency. Chomsky (1959), as can be gleaned in Brown (1994), views proficiency as the ability to apply grammar rules to production and understanding of the language. Typical example of a standard proficiency test is English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) consisting of three sections: Listening Comprehension, Structure and Written Expression, Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension. Sometimes proficiency tests involve free writing and/or oral production. In ESP/EST, it is used to measure whether a student already has "sufficient English" or is competent in English to work for a particular employer or receiving institution.

### *Factors that Influence Language Test Performance*

Language testers have long held an interest in the factors that affect second language test performance, and several empirical studies have demonstrated that variation on language tests can be attributed to a number of underlying factors. Bachman (1990), as cited by Purpura (1999) and Rondina (2001), proposed the framework investigating the effects of these factors on test scores. These factors are as follows: The first is the Communicative Language Ability (CLA) which is the central factor accounting for the variation of test scores in second language learners.

The second factor is the personal attributes of learners that potentially affect the differential performance of test takers on language tests. In this respect, test takers vary on multiple dimensions relating to (a) background or demographic characteristics like age, gender, native language, ethnic identity, educational background and socio-economic status, (b) socio-psychological or socio-cultural characteristics such as attitudes, motivation and effort extended, (c) personality characteristics such as self-esteem, anxiety and risk-taking, and (d) cognitive characteristics such as aptitude, learning strategies, or cognitive style like introversion vs. extroversion, field dependence vs. field independence.

The third factor is the test-method factor which refers to the characteristics of the test task to elicit test performance and the effects that may have on test scores variation. Examples for these are the physical conditions and time of testing; the test rubric such as the task instructions; the task input, which is the nature of the language used in the test; the expected response, that is, the nature of language used in the response; and the interaction between the input and response.

The final category involves random factors. This refers to the unsystematic variation of scores due to events during a test that might impact a test-taker score. Random factors also refer to the interactions between and among the other task characteristics or to measurement errors, which can also affect scores on tests.

### *Teaching Writing in Language Classrooms*

Writing is one of the language skills that second language learners need to know and language teachers need to teach. There is a need to teach writing because unlike speech, writing is not acquired universally. While all normal people can comprehend and speak their first language in the absence of instruction, not all can read and write the same. Writing, then, has to be taught.

Writing needs to be included as part of the second language syllabus. It is because, according to Raimes (1983), writing helps students to learn. As to how, Raimes enumerates the following ways: writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that teachers have taught students; when students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks; and when students write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

Perhaps the most difficult and most important of these skills is the last. Native English speakers develop a sense of what is appropriate in different writing situations. Registers of English range from very informal forms such as colloquialisms, slang, and jargons to standard English to more formal forms, such as the language used for business letters, legal documents, and academic papers. Writers must be aware of these differences and learn to follow the conventions of different situations. A writing test needs to take these skills into account.

### *Microskills for Writing*

The following are the microskills for writing production: produce writing at an efficient rate of speed to suit the purpose; produce an acceptable core of words and use appropriate word order patterns; use acceptable grammatical systems (e.g., tense agreement, pluralization), patterns and rules; express a particular meaning in different grammatical forms; use cohesive devices

in written discourse; use the rhetorical forms and conventions of written discourse; convey links and connections between events and communicate such relations as main idea, supporting ideas, new information, given information, generalization, and exemplification; distinguish between literal and implied meanings when writing; and correctly convey culturally specific references in the context of the written text.

### *Writing for Content and/or Form*

The purpose of writing, in principle, is the expression of ideas, the conveying of a message to the reader; so the ideas themselves should arguably be seen as the most important aspect of the writing. On the other hand, the writer needs also to pay some attention to formal aspects: neat handwriting, correct spelling and punctuation, as well as acceptable grammar and careful selection of vocabulary. This is because much higher standards of language are normally demanded in writing than in speech: more careful constructions, more precise and varied vocabulary, more correctness of expression in general.

One of the problems in teaching writing is to maintain a fair balance between content and form when defining one's requirements and assessing. What this "fair balance" is depends, of course, to some extent on one's own teaching situation and opinion.

### *Developing Correctness in Student Writing*

Teachers have worked to eradicate error in two ways: (1) by teaching mechanical and grammatical correctness through drill exercises in grammar/usage texts, and ( 2 ) by pointing out all errors when marking student papers, perhaps also expecting students to make corrections when papers are returned. Although numerous research studies show that there is little or no transfer of learning from isolated drills to actual writing experiences and that the time-intensive practice of the teacher's "error- hunt" does not produce more mechanically perfect papers, this 100-year-old tradition still persists. The presence of classroom sets of grammar/usage texts in almost any school attests to this approach to correctness as do the results of several recent studies into teachers' marking procedures.

### *Writing Proficiency*

Many observers share the insight that writing makes one competent in communication. Elbow (1975), as cited by Damsani (2005), concludes that meaning is not what one starts out with in writing, but what one ends up with. Boice (1994) notes that inspiration is the result of writing, not the cause. In addition, there is empirical evidence supporting this assertion, experiments showing that writing can aid in thinking and problem-solving (Krashen, 2003).

Brown (1994), as cited by Damsani (2005), reveals that compositions are supposed to (a) meet certain standards of prescribed English Rhetorical style, (b) reflect accurate grammar, and (c)

be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional. A good deal of attention is placed on “model” compositions that students would emulate and how well a student’s final product measured up against a list of criteria that included content, organization, vocabulary use, grammatical use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation.

### *Assessing and Evaluating Writing*

Experience has shown teachers, researchers and school administrators that, just like language itself, testing practices in English Language Teaching (ELT) are not static but dynamic and changing. One controversial area is testing writing, which requires that test construction and evaluation criteria be based on course objectives and teaching methodologies. In the English language classroom, especially at the high school and university levels, teachers are always challenged by how to reliably and validly evaluate students’ writing skills, so that the students will be better prepared for internal and external proficiency and achievement examinations. Indeed, writing in the academic community is paramount; a student can’t be successful without a certain level of academic writing proficiency. One must know from first hand knowledge what it is like to try to come up with a perfect final product without the process. One may have experienced “writers cramp” (mental blocks) that severely hampered any progress. A student may have felt a certain level of anxiety welling up within him as the pressure may have been felt by him to write an in-class essay that would be judged by the teacher, graded and returned with no chance to revise it anyway in the future. The process approach is an attempt to take advantage of the nature of the written code to give students a chance to think as they write.

There are many reasons for testing writing in the English language classroom including to meet diagnostic and proficiency needs. Each purpose requires a different test construction (Bachman, 1991; Pierce (1991). Recent approaches to academic writing instruction have necessitated testing procedures that deal with both the process and the product of writing (Cohen et. al, 1995). It is generally accepted by teachers and researchers that there are two main goals of testing: First, to provide feedback during the process of acquiring writing proficiency (also referred to as responding or assessing), and second, to assign a grade or score that will indicate the level of the written product (also referred to as evaluating).

To summarize the above literature and the studies reviewed, there was an extensive body of literature in each of these variables. Theories and concepts of test anxiety and writing proficiency were presented to give background knowledge that rendered support in the present study.

The relationship between test anxiety and writing proficiency was explored for these variables were implied by several researches and educators to affect one another. Moreover, the moderator variables such as course and gender were believed by these educators to have an effect on the relationship of test anxiety and writing proficiency.

## **Methodology**

### **Research Design**

This study made use of the Descriptive-Correlational Quantitative Research Design. The study sought to describe the students' levels of test anxiety and of writing proficiency based on gender and course and the relationship between the two.

In addition, the study also sought to describe the following differences : the students' level of test anxiety based on gender; the students' level of writing proficiency based on gender; the students' level of test anxiety based on course; and the students' level of writing proficiency based on course.

Furthermore, this study also aimed to describe the significant relationship between the test anxiety and the writing proficiency levels of the Western Mindanao State University college students as well as the significant relationship between the students' level of test anxiety and the students' level of writing proficiency based on gender and course.

### **Population and Sampling**

The target population of this study were the Western Mindanao State University college students enrolled in the second semester of 2005-2006. Simple Random Systematic Listing Sampling was utilized. Hence, students' official listings were secured from the MISTO; systematically, the even numbers (4, 8, 12, 16. etc..) of the listing were taken as respondents. Thirty (30) students from each course : AB Pol. Sci., BSED and BSN were identified as respondents. There were only two sections in AB Pol. Sci. and BSED. So fifteen (15) students were randomly taken in each section. On the other hand, thirty (30) students were randomly taken from BSN composed of twelve Freshmen sections using the systematic listing ( 10, 20, 30, ect..) getting at least three students in each section. This yielded a total population of ninety (90) respondents. Furthermore, the gender of the respondents was also used in this study.

The respondents of the study consisted of 90 students who were enrolled in AB Political Science (33.3% ), BS Education ( 33.3% ) and BS Nursing ( 33.3% ) during second semester of school year 2005-2006 . A majority of the respondents were females ( 58.9% ).

The identified courses were chosen since the College of Education and College of Nursing had been chosen as centers of excellence in Western Mindanao State University. It was but proper to capitalize on these student-respondents considering the academic achievements displayed which are worth using in a research. AB Political Science students of the College of Liberal Arts had been consistent also in reaping academic achievements locally, regionally and nationally as well. Despite all these successes in academics, there were also students from these courses who struggled especially during examinations.

### **Research Instrument**

To determine the level of test anxiety of the respondents, a standardized questionnaire designed by Richard Driscoll (2004) was used. The questionnaire was composed of ten (10) statements in a five (5) point scale. The respondents were asked to encircle the number that best described them.

The first instrument that was used in this study is the Test Anxiety Scale developed by Richard Driscoll (2004). The test was used in order to come up with the students' level of test anxiety. The scale was constructed to measure anxiety impairments with most items asking directly about incapacity (memory loss and poor cognitive processing), worrying (catastrophizing) or simple indications of physiological stress which interfered with concentration.

To determine the writing proficiency of the respondents in terms of its content, vocabulary, organization, language use and mechanical skills, a standardized writing test by Scriber (1994) as used by Amilasan (2002) was utilized. The students were asked to study the picture carefully for a few minutes and then asked to write a descriptive essay about the picture in not less than 150 words.

### **Data Gathering Procedure**

The researcher sought permission from the different Deans of the College of Liberal Arts, College of Education, and College of Nursing to conduct the study. After the approval, the researcher made appointments with the respective English teachers handling the identified groups of students for the administration of the tests.

The respondents were given 15 minutes to answer the questionnaire to determine the students' level of anxiety. The writing test was administered after. A duration of forty-five minutes was given to the respondents to write their essays. The test was checked by three assigned correctors from the College of Liberal Arts and then made ready for statistical analysis.

### **Data Analysis Procedure**

1. To score the test anxiety , the following rating scale by Richard Driscoll (2004) was used:

1.0-1.9	Comfortably low test anxiety
2.0-2.5	Normal or average test anxiety
2.6-2.9	High normal test anxiety
3.0-3.4	Moderately high (some items rated 4= high)
3.5-3.9	High test anxiety (half or more of the items rated 4= high)
4.0-5.0	Extremely high anxiety (items rated 4= high and 5= extreme)

2. To score the writing test, the following rating scale by Heaton (1989) as cited by Damsani (2005) was used.

### **Content**

30-27-	Excellent to Very Good: Knowledgeable- substantive
26-22-	Good to Average: Some knowledge of subject-adequate range
21-17-	Fair to Poor: Limited knowledge of subject- little substance
16-13-	Very Poor: Does not show knowledge of subject- non-substantive

### **Vocabulary**

20-18-	Excellent to Very Good: Sophisticated range-effective word/idiom choice and usage
17-14-	Good to Average: Adequate range; occasional errors of word/ idiom form, choice and usage
13-10-	Fair to Poor: limited range- frequent errors of word/ idiom from/choice, usage
9-7 -	Very Poor: Essentially translated-little knowledge of English vocabulary

### **Organization**

20-18-	Excellent to Very Good: Fluent expression- ideas clearly stated
17-14-	Good to Average: Somewhat choppy-loosely organized but main ideas stand out
13-10-	Fair to Poor: Non-fluent-ideas confused or discounted
9-7 -	Very Poor: Does not have communication –no organization

### **Language Use**

25-22-	Excellent to Very Good: Effective complex constructions
21-18-	Good to Average: Major problems in simple/ complex constructions

17-11- Fair to poor: major problems in simple/ complex constructions

10-5 - Very Poor: Virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules

## **Mechanics**

5- Excellent to Very Good: Demonstrate mastery of conventions

4- Good to Average: Occasional errors of spelling, punctuation

3- Fair to poor: Frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization

2- Very Poor: No mastery of conventions- dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paraphrasing

The raw data were tabulated and analyzed using the following statistical tools.

1. To answer questions numbers 1 and 2, the mean and standard deviation were used to determine the level of test anxiety and writing proficiency of college students of the Western Mindanao State University.
2. To answer question number 3, T-test for Independent Samples was used to determine the significant difference in the test anxiety level of college students when data were grouped according to gender. To answer question number 4, ANOVA was used to determine the significant difference in the test anxiety level and writing proficiency when data were grouped according to course.
3. To answer questions numbers 5 and 6, T-Test for Independent Samples was used to determine the significant difference of the writing proficiency of college students when data were grouped according to gender. However, when grouped according to course, ANOVA was used.
4. To answer questions numbers 7 and 8, the Process-Split (Pearson Product Moment Correlation) was used to determine the relationship between the test anxiety and the writing proficiency levels of the Western Mindanao State University college students as well as the relationship between the students' level of test anxiety and their level of writing proficiency.

## **Results and Discussion**

### **Respondents' test anxiety level based on gender and course**

Data shows the respondents' test anxiety level by gender. It is shown in the table that the number of students with "normal or average" test anxiety level is higher among females ( 23.3% ) than males (20.0%). The data also show that female respondents have "high normal"



( 16.7% ) and “moderately high” ( 7.8% ) test anxiety levels than male respondents. Generally, It means that test anxiety is higher among female respondents. These findings support the claim of Lindis (1986) as cited by Aboc (1993), Yap-Aizon (2000) and Amilasan (2002) that discussed the traits and capabilities of males and females. Lindis stressed that males are strong and silent and do not show weakness and keep their feelings under careful rein at least outwardly while females have greater freedom to express their emotions. Likewise , Brown (1994), as cited by Yap-Aizon (2000), Damsani (2005) and Madrazo (2005), stated that gender is one major factor affecting the socio-pragmatic competence in almost every language. It was further stressed that sex affects both production and reception of language. Hence, male, being a strong figure, may be able to control his anxiety while female, being expressive of her emotions, would manifest high test anxiety level.

In terms of the respondents’ test anxiety level by course, most of the student-respondents ( 43.3% ) have “normal or average” test anxiety level. It further shows that when data are classified according to course, the BSN students have the highest number ( 17.8%) of “normal or average” test anxiety level compared to AB Pol. Sci. (11.1% ) and BSED students ( 14.4% ). It implies further that AB Pol. Sci. students have “high normal” test anxiety level ( 10% ) followed by BSN ( 7.8% ) and BSED ( 5.6% ). Thus, the data indicate that the variable course can affect the respondents’ test anxiety level.

These findings are substantiated by Bachman (1990) as cited by Purpura (1999) and Rondina (2001) who proposed the framework investigating the effects of these factors on test scores. One of these factors is the personal attributes of learners that potentially affect the differential performance of test takers on language tests. Test takers vary on multiple dimensions relating to (a) educational background, socio-economic status, etc...; (b) socio-psychological or socio-cultural characteristics such as attitudes, motivation and effort extended; (c) personality characteristics such as self- esteem, anxiety and risk taking; (d) cognitive characteristics such as aptitude, learning strategies or cognitive style.

When the findings are related to the dimensions presented, It is quite evident that BSN students generally have normal or average anxiety level for the reason that these students have good educational background and have come from a well-to-do family as evidenced by the records from the WMSU Research Center and College of Nursing Freshmen Coordinator’s Office. And these factors may lead to positive attitude and motivation, personality characteristics such as good self-esteem and only average anxiety level.

### **Respondents' writing proficiency level based on proficiency components, gender and course**

As regards the respondents' writing proficiency by components, most of the respondents have "good to average" proficiency in terms of content (50.0%), vocabulary (60.0%), organization (51.1%) and language use (45.6%). The data further show that it is in the component of language use where quite a number of students have "fair to poor" (27.8%) and "very poor" (5.6%) proficiency level. However, with regard to mechanics, more than half of the respondents fall within "very poor" (22.2%) to "fair to poor" (41.1%) proficiency level.

The findings, specifically on language use and mechanics obtaining a fair to poor performance, are quite alarming and clearly draw attention. According to Harris (1977), 66 percent of the corrections and annotations the high school teachers in her study made on student papers were on mechanics and usage. Searle and Dillon's study (1980) of the commenting done by nine teachers in grades four through six revealed that teachers in their study tried to correct all errors in spelling, usage, and punctuation, which led to a heavy emphasis on what the researchers characterized as "Form-Correction Response". The latest survey of writing instruction in the United States, Applebee's 1981 study, *Writing in Secondary School: Errors in writing mechanics* were the most common focus of these responses; comments concerned with the ideas the student was expressing were the least frequently reported.

Rosen (1983) found that patterns in responses by high school English teachers quoted in his article "Developing Correctness in Writing" showed similar results. Almost 50 percent of their combined responses (defined as any type of written feedback to the student including underlinings, symbols, phrases, corrections, suggestions, and comments) on their students' papers focused on *mechanical* and *grammatical errors*. Each of the six teachers had a specific approach to dealing with errors on student papers.

In terms of the writing proficiency level of the respondents by gender, 55.6% of the respondents have "good to average" writing proficiency. It further shows that more females have "good to average" (36.7%) and "excellent to very good" (18.9%) writing proficiency than males. However, "Fair to poor" writing proficiency is higher among males (11.1%) than females (2.2%). Unfortunately, the data also reveal that a female (1.1%) has "very poor" in terms of writing proficiency.

The findings that more females perform better than males in writing proficiency are worth noting. These findings are substantiated by Corteza (2003) who showed that generally girls scored higher than boys on the English Language Arts Achievement Test of 1999. However, this is contrary to Madrazo's (2005) study of the levels of linguistic intelligence revealing

that males perform better than females in the information gap (a component of a Communicative Linguistic Proficiency Test).

In terms of writing proficiency test, data shows that more than half (55.6%) of the student-respondents have “good to average” proficiency level where most of them (22.2%) were taking AB Political Science. However, one student enrolled in the same course yielded “very poor” writing proficiency. This means that the writing proficiency of the student-respondents has a “good to average” (56.6%) rating while 30% of these respondents have a rating of “excellent to very good” while only 13.3% has a rating of fair to poor. This implies further that among the three groups, BSN students have better writing proficiency where 15.6% of the respondents have a rating of “excellent to very good” followed by BSED with 10%.

The “excellent to very good” writing proficiency of the BSN and BSED students may be attributed to what Bachman (1990), as cited by Purpura (1999) and Rondina (2001), proposed—which was the framework investigating the effects of the factors affecting test scores. One of the specific factors is imbedded in one of the essential dimensions which is the Cognitive Characteristics such as *Aptitude*, learning strategies or cognitive style. In relation to *Aptitude*, the BSN and the BSED curricula implement strict admission requirements, to include a high percentile rank score in the WMSU College Entrance Test and in the Nursing Aptitude Test and in the Writing Communication Essay Test, a component of Selective Admission Policy of the College of Education, respectively.

### **Difference in the test anxiety level of the college students based on gender**

There is a significant difference in the test anxiety level of the students grouped according to gender. It means that the t-value of  $-1.32$  has an observed two-tailed significance level of 0.191 which is greater than  $L=0.05$ . This indicates that the mean scores of test anxiety level between males and females are not significantly different. In other words, gender does not influence test anxiety of the student-respondents.

These findings are supported by Damsani (2005) whose study stated that there are no significant differences in the learning styles between male and female. On the other hand, these findings are contrary to Malbago's (2000) study that sex is believed to influence the interlocutors' choice of language and Brown (1994) as cited by Yap-Aizon stated that gender is one major factor affecting the socio-pragmatic competence in almost every language.

### **Difference in the test anxiety level of the college students based on course**

There is a significant difference in the students' test anxiety level when grouped by course as evidenced by the F-value of 3.825 with a significance level of 0.026. The Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons further show that Test anxiety level varies significantly between the BSED respondents and those taking AB Pol. Sci..

Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons reveals the post hoc analysis for respondents test anxiety by course. It can be gleaned that AB Pol.Sci. and BSED obtained a P-value of 0.024 which is significant at  $L=0.05$ . It means that there is a significant difference between the two groups in favor of the AB Pol.Sci. students with a mean difference of 0.3833. On the other hand, there is no significant difference between BSED and BEED as the obtained p-value of 1.0 is not significant, not at  $L=0.05$ .

The findings on the difference between AB Pol.Sci. and BSED students in favor of the former are supported by Rondina (2001) as cited by Sanchez (2003) and Madrazo (2005) who stated the theoretical basis of this variable being an assumption that each group of students differs in the employment of language learning strategies. Each group has to employ strategies specific to their area of specialization because it determines the kind, level and appropriateness of instructional input that are essential in learning the language. It is logical to conclude that if students vary in the employment of language learning strategies, they would also vary in their English proficiency based on the assumption that not all individuals learn in the same manner.

### **Difference in the writing proficiency of the college students based on gender**

The t-test results on writing proficiency show that the mean scores do not vary significantly between males and females. It means that the obtained t-value of  $-1.781$  has a significance level of 0.082, which is not significant at alpha .05.

These findings are supported by Damsani (2005) that there are no significant differences in students learning styles between males and females and by Madrazo (2005) that there are no significant differences in the four language tasks (components of the Communicative Linguistic Proficiency Test) between males and females among the visually inclined learners.

### **Difference in the writing proficiency level of the college students based on course**

There is significant difference in the respondents' writing proficiency classified according to course. The results of ANOVA for writing proficiency yielded an F-value of 9.082 with  $p=0.000$ , significant at alpha .05. It implies further that course may affect the respondents' writing proficiency.

The three (3) groups of respondents differ in their writing proficiency. The differences are shown in the Post Hoc Analysis. The result of the Bonferroni Multiple Comparisons Test shows that significant differences are between BSN and AB Pol. Sci. students and between BSN and BSED students all in favor of the BSN students.

This implies that the writing proficiency of the respondents differs significantly among these groups in favor of the BSN group maybe because of the rigid admission requirements—High Percentage Scores of College Entrance Test and Nursing Aptitude Test are expected among BSN students. This is supported by Bachman (1990), as cited by Purpura (1999) and Rondina (2001) who pointed out the framework investigating the effects of these factors on test scores. One of these is the personal attributes of learners that affect the differential performance of test takers on language tests with reference to the multiple dimensions related to the following: background, socio-psychological or socio-cultural, personality and *cognitive characteristics* such as *aptitude*, learning strategies or cognitive style.

#### **Correlation between the Respondents' test anxiety and their writing proficiency levels**

Pearson Correlation Coefficient (  $r = -.128$  ) reveals no correlation between test anxiety and writing proficiency of student-respondents. In terms of the different components of essay writing, the obtained r-values consistently show that test anxiety does not affect writing proficiency.

The findings on the none correlation between test anxiety and writing proficiency are contrary to what Hembree (1988) discovered. In the meta-analysis of five hundred sixty two studies that related test anxiety and academic achievement, Hembree found that test anxiety routinely causes poor performance. Hill and Wigfield (1984) reported studies with correlations. Furthermore, effects on Academic Performance have been thoroughly investigated. Comprehensive reviews by Hembree (1988) and Seipp (1991) show that in most studies, Test Anxiety is accompanied by lower test performance. In the test anxiety literature this apparent effect of Test Anxiety is almost exclusively interpreted within the so-called interference model (Sarason, 1988; Wine, 1980). Basically, the model describes the test-anxious student as one who knows the course material, but freezes up during examinations and , therefore, is unable to recall prior learning (Paul & Ericson, 1964).

On the other hand, language test specialists who are advocates of the traditional Stanford-Binet IQ test based on the Stanford- Binet Scale, as cited by Bingham (1937) in Madrazo (2005) support the findings on the negative correlation between test anxiety and writing proficiency on the basis that if a student possesses an IQ level of over 140 which is “superior”, then no

matter how nervous the student may be or no matter how high the anxiety level, the test taker will still obtain a high writing proficiency level. Similarly, if the student has an IQ level of below 70 which is “mentally retarded”, then no matter how relaxed the student maybe or how low the anxiety level, the test taker will definitely get a poor performance in an essay examination.

## **Conclusion**

Based on the findings of this study, it is safe to conclude that course and gender affect the respondents’ test anxiety, as well as writing proficiency. Course or area of specialization can further affect their writing proficiency. The following implications can be drawn from this study. Teacher should design learning activities with great consideration on their gender and course. There must be no one -size fits all strategy in the classroom. When writing activity is provided to students, teachers need to address both the strengths and weaknesses of each gender and course group. Hence, there has to be a variety of ways to implement the lesson plan to our students , so that students would be able to connect , appreciate and process the English language meaningfully without having to stress themselves with tremendous fear and anxiety. Learning has to be fun but enjoyable as well. Future research along this line of inquiry has to consider involving more number of participants utilizing random sampling selection to ascertain greater effect size for generalizability of results.

## **References**

- Amilasan, Sulayman T. (2002). *Teaching styles of language teachers and language proficiency of students in the* [Doctoral dissertation, Western Mindanao State University]. <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>
- Aquino, Eden C. (2004). *Analytic and communicative approach in teaching the explicit and implicit knowledge of the English language among college students* [Master’s thesis, Western Mindanao State University]. <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>
- Bacha, Nahla Nola (2005). *Testing writing in the EFL classroom: Students expectations*. [www.elp\\_etfv40@org. com](http://www.elp_etfv40@org.com).
- Brown, Douglas H.(1994). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. NJ, USA: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Brown, Douglas H. (1994). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. NJ, USA: Paramount Communication Company.

- Brown, Douglas H. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. NY, USA: Pearson Education.
- Burk, Jim (2003). *The English teacher's companion: A complete guide to classroom, curriculum and the profession*. NY, USA: Prentice Hall Regents
- Damsani, Darwisa C. (2005). *Learning styles and writing competence of regular and special high school students in Zamboanga City* [Master's thesis, Western Mindanao State University]. <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>
- Davis, Barbara G. (1993). *Allaying students' anxieties about tests*. San Francisco, USA: Jossey-Bass Publishers,
- Driscoll, Richard (2004). *Westside test anxiety scale*. Retrieved from [www.Peacewithmyself.com/www.@amtoa.org/westsidescale.html](http://www.Peacewithmyself.com/www.@amtoa.org/westsidescale.html).
- Heaton, J. B. (1989). *Writing English language test*. Longman Inc. New York, USA.
- Hedge, Tricia (1998). *Writing*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Hedge, Tricia (2000). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. NC, USA: Oxford University Press.
- Kintao, Kenji (2000). *Testing writing*. Retrieved from [www.LISTSERV@CUNYVM.EDU](http://www.LISTSERV@CUNYVM.EDU)
- Lehman, Barbara (2006 ). *Meta-analysis of the teaching of technical writing*. Illinois, USA: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Madrazo, Arnel R. (2005). *Multiple intelligence: A correlational study* [ Master's thesis, Western Mindanao State University] . <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>
- Musch, Jochen (1999). *Test anxiety versus academic skills*. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69, 105-116.
- Reid, Joy M. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. New Jersey, USA: Prentice Hall Regents,
- Richards, Jack C. and Rodgers, Theodore S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed). Cambridge, UK : Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, Jack C. (1998). *New Interchange: English for International Communication*. Cambridge University Press, USA.
- Rondina, Redilla C. ( 2001). *Language learning strategies and English proficiency of technical college students in Region IX* [Doctoral dissertation, Western Mindanao State University]. <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>
- Ur, Penny (1996). *A Course in language teaching*. NY, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Yap-Aizon, Jose Genaro R. (2000). *Dimensions of receptive and productive skills of WMSU students in English And Filipino Languages*. [Doctoral dissertation, Western Mindanao State University]. <http://wmsu.edu.ph/>

## **An Empirical Study of Scaffolding Instruction in ESP Teaching**

*Shuiling Chen*

*Guangdong University of Foreign Studies , China*

### **Biodata**

Shuiling Chen is a Lecturer of English at Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, Guangzhou, China. Her research interests include ESP teaching and discourse analysis. She is currently teaching Business English and Integrated English. She can be reached at [200110281@gdufs.edu.cn](mailto:200110281@gdufs.edu.cn).

### **Abstract**

Faced with the current ESP teaching situation in China and inspired by the theories of Scaffolding Instruction, the present research attempted to explore a more effective ESP teaching mode. There were two objectives: (1) to find out the attitudes of students towards the Scaffolding Instruction used in their ESP course learning; (2) to find out how effective Scaffolding Instruction teaching proved to be in boosting students' motivation and interests to learn ESP. The study employed a quasi-experimental design through the second half of 2016 and had two parallel Business English classes of second-year university students as subjects. They were divided into the Experimental Class and the Control Class. The Experimental Class adopted the Scaffolding Instruction teaching mode while the Control Class just employed the traditional mode of teaching, where the teacher did the explanation and translation, and there were few classroom activities. By way of having interviews, questionnaires and English tests, abundant quantitative and qualitative data were collected to contrast the differences between the two classes so as to evaluate the teaching outcomes. The results of the research showed that: (1) students have a very positive perception of Scaffolding Instruction; (2) Scaffolding Instruction helps to arouse students' interest and build up their confidence and motivation. In accordance with the research findings, the study helped to gain insights as to how effective Scaffolding Instruction can be in ESP teaching in China.

**Affiliation Address:** No.2 Baiyun (North) Avenue, Baiyun District, Guangzhou, China



**Keywords:** Scaffolding Instruction, ESP teaching, ZPD theory

## **1. Introduction**

In accordance with the economic globalization, the world is now in urgent need of cultivating inter-disciplinary talents with both professional knowledge and a good command of English. Hence, offering university students high-quality major courses in the English-speaking context has become significant. It is in this circumstance that various forms of ESP (English for Special Purposes) have started to mushroom. It is even firmly believed that, as a continuation and expansion of EGP (English for General Purposes), ESP will become the mainstream of English teaching in the 21<sup>st</sup> century.

It is true that at present, with increasing number of teachers and materials transformed towards it, ESP teaching in many universities and colleges is flourishing. However, research indicates that there lies dissatisfaction by students about the teaching effect. Cai (2004), for instance, points out that this has something to do with the adoption of the traditional teaching method, notably, teachers monopolizing the class by a mere combination of word explanation and paragraph translation. Consequently, in spite of the fact that students can score high in the final exams or in some other certified tests, they are found to be quite incompetent in their workplace when they fail to fulfill a handful of real-life communication schemes by use of professional English.

There have been plentiful studies trying to look into this ESP teaching inadequacy. Meanwhile, both at home and abroad, repeated attempts have been made to explore a more effective teaching mode. Among them, the proposed application of Scaffolding Instruction has stood out to be rather notable.

Scaffolding Instruction, based on Constructivism and Lev Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) theory, emphasizes the classroom interaction between teachers and students. The former are no longer the center of the classroom. They serve mainly to build the scaffold for students to study with. The latter, under the assistance and guide of teachers, are supposed to take the initiative to conduct independent learning and peer collaborative learning.

To date back, there have been plenty of studies trying to investigate how effective it might be to apply Scaffolding Instruction to current ESP teaching. Nevertheless, the number of empirical research in this sphere is not big. Therefore, The present study, by collecting

empirical data and having empirical analysis, attempts to explore how effective the Scaffolding Instruction can be for current ESP teaching. It is hoped that this study may prove to have some pedagogical implications and pose certain academic significance.

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1 Scaffolding Instruction**

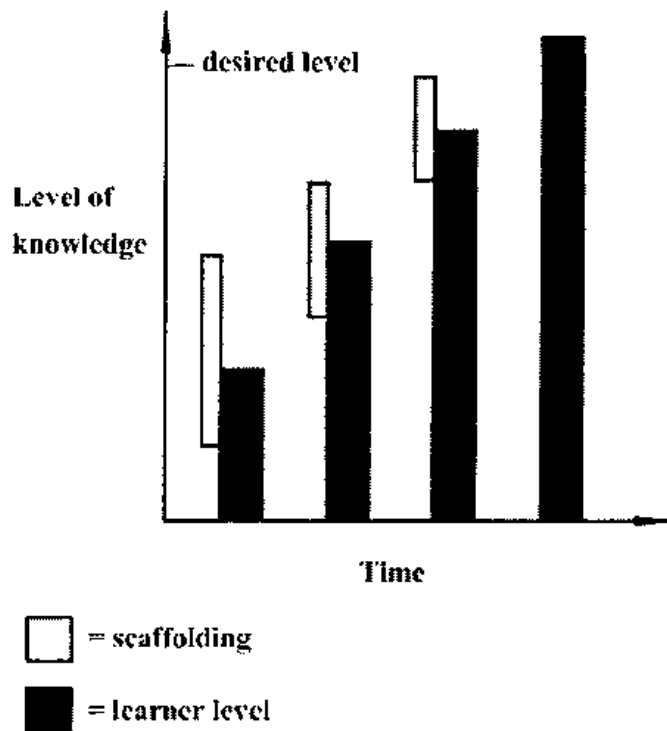
#### **2.1.1 Definition**

The word “scaffold” was originally used in construction sites, referred as “the temporary framework of platform or poles constructed to provide accommodation for workmen during the erection, repair or decoration of a building” (1998, Oxford English Dictionary). Here, “temporary” means that when the construction work is completed, the framework will be removed and then the building itself becomes self-supporting.

The concept of “scaffolding” was first used by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) in teaching. They described it as “a process which enables a learner to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal that would be beyond his unassisted efforts” (1976). As for language learning, when it is no longer needed, “the temporary scaffolding provided by the instructor is removed to reveal the impressive structure of students' understanding” (Herber & Herber 1993:138-139).

Scaffolding Instruction, to make it simpler, refers to teachers building up the framework to provide assistance/guidance, subsequently, students trying to independently accomplish a task that is beyond his/her own ability, till he/she can expand knowledge or skills to higher levels.

Figure 1 demonstrates how Scaffolding Instruction takes place in teaching.



**Figure 1 Process of Scaffolding (qtd in Zhang 2012)**

### 2.1.2 Backup Theories

Constructivism and Lev Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development(ZPD) are two fundamental theoretical base of Scaffolding Instruction.

Piaget (1966) develops the cognitive constructivism and holds that the process of the individuals to construct knowledge of the external world is the result of interaction between humans and the environment. It emphasizes students' initiative in the knowledge learning. Also, it advocates that the teaching mode should take students as the core.

According to constructivism, “context”, “cooperation”, “conversation”, and “meaning construction” pose as four main elements of the learning environment. And the interaction between learners and the environment is very significant. Consequently, teaching process becomes a cooperation to construct knowledge by teachers and students together. Teachers play the role of helper, organizer, mentor and facilitator while students take the initiative to develop their knowledge or skills through participating in activities under the guidance of teachers (He 1998).

Lev Vygotsky's ZPD (Zone of Proximal Development) theory is another essential theoretical framework of Scaffolding Instruction. By ZPD, here we refer to the distance

between the actual development levels as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined by problem solving under the adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers ( Vygotsky 1978:176). Since ZPD cannot be reached independently by students alone, Scaffolding Instruction must be designed according to it.

The theory of ZPD has been highly acknowledged by stressing the roles of learners, teachers, peers, their interaction and some other factors for the process of learners' knowledge construction (Bransford, Brown & Cocking 2000). It holds that the essential characteristic of teaching lies in stimulating learners to reach the potential development level with teachers serving as intermediaries. Meanwhile, learning is for learners to develop to a higher cognitive stage by social interacting under teachers' guidance or assistance.

### **2.1.3 Stages of Scaffolding Instruction**

Byrnes (2001) introduced Vygotsky's mode of Scaffolding Instruction by dividing it into four stages. Namely, they are: 1) modeling; 2) student imitation; 3) scaffolding removing; 4) achieving higher-level knowledge construction. Based on this, many Chinese researchers like He Kekang (1998), Zhang Guorong (2004) and Wang Haishan (2005) further modify it into a five-stage teaching mode.

1) To build the scaffolding. According to students real ZPD, in combination with the theme of teaching content, teachers are supposed to decompose the complex teaching tasks into specific parts so as to set appropriate learning sequence and build varied learning scaffold, which might be examples, suggestions, charts and guidance or which might be tasks, media and material.

2) To create the context. To facilitate students to reach the potential development level, teachers are supposed to introduce students to a certain context by role play, scene simulation, task design, and dialogue acting.

3) Independent exploration. After teachers clarify the learning goal and learning purpose, students are supposed to proceed for the designated task on their initiative so as to accomplish the learning tasks. During this process, teachers may provide some helpful resources like books, journals and video clips for students to take on more efficient exploration.

4) Collaborative learning. On the basis of students' independent exploration, teachers can divide students into a few study groups in class according to their levels. Through the collaborative study by way of resource sharing, discussion and even debating, students can

deepen their understanding of targeted knowledge or skill points.

5) Effective feedback and assessment. It is highly necessary to provide a comprehensive feedback and evaluation to students on the basis of the above four stages.

These five stages constitute a typical classroom Scaffolding Instruction and they do not necessarily follow a fixed sequence.

## **2.2 ESP Teaching at Home and abroad**

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has been the subject of increasing attention in recent years. The goal of ESP is to assist students in acquiring and applying English in actual academic, business, and professional situations (Al-Mumaidi, 2009; Dudley-Evans & John, 1998). ESP spans multiple fields and professions such as Business English, Tourism English, Legal English, and Hospitality English. Basturkmen (2006) indicated that among the objectives of teaching ESP are revealing subject-specific language use and developing target performance competencies. She summarizes ESP courses in terms of two trends. The first one strives to help students gain access to their target workplace, academic, or professional environments. By doing so, it is believed that learners can become socially and psychologically integrated into their target discourse community and can thus learn the necessary subject-specific language. The other is that ESP courses attempt to create an optimal linguistic environment by giving learners sufficient input in the form of exposure to the target specialist language, as well as opportunities for student interaction using this language (Basturkmen, 2006).

As an approach of ELT (English Language Teaching), ESP (English for Special Purposes) teaching aims to meet specific needs of learners. It is highly goal-oriented by associating English teaching with the major or the future jobs. Applying ESP approach enables students to combine English learning with professional study and helps them to acquire the practical ability for their future jobs within limited time. To date, there have been plentiful studies made by researchers both at home and abroad.

### **2.2.1 Studies of ESP Teaching Abroad**

Since the early 1960s, ESP has grown to be one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching. Now some international journals dedicated to ESP discussion are well-established, such as English for Specific Purposes, Asian ESP Journal and ESP world.

Many linguistic scholars have devoted their great works to the teaching of ESP. Hutchinson & Waters (1987) wrote a book *English for Specific Purposes: A Learner-centered approach*. This book is thought to be one of the most representative works in ESP field. Sysoyve (2000) suggests that ESP course development should be viewed as on-going processes with necessary alteration by teachers to suit students' interest and need. Basturkmen (2010), in her book *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*, provides an introduction to the goals of ESP and its various branches. Also, she provides us with an insight to the great range and depth of possibilities and challenges in developing ESP teaching.

Besides theoretical research, many investigations have also been made abroad. In 2001 in Russia, a massive survey was conducted about ESP teaching at colleges. Problems regarding teaching methods, teaching material and teacher quality were revealed. Lee and Joe (2006) interviewed 169 nursing supervisors from local hospitals to find that their linguistic competence needs were deemed as important as the communicative competence needs and greater importance should be attached to listening and speaking abilities in their ENP (English for Nursing Purposes) course. Kaewpet (2009) examined the communication needs of some Thai civil engineering students and recommended that four communicative events should be incorporated in to their ESP course, namely, talking about daily tasks and duties, reading textbooks, reading manuals and writing periodic reports.

### **2.2.2 Studies of ESP Teaching at Home**

ESP teaching started at the end of 1970s in China. It started to be popular in the 1990s. Currently it has achieved a lot with the effort of many scholars and teachers. In 2008, the first ESP college was founded in Beijing University of Foreign Studies. In 2011, the college came out with its publication of the first ESP Journal, *ESP Research in China*.

The studies of ESP teaching have been conducted in many fields such as syllabus design, teaching material, teaching methods and teachers' development. In their book *ESP-Theory and Practice*, Cheng Shilu and Zhang Guoyang (1996) give the theory and practice to instruct the establishment of ESP system. Li Hong (2001) discusses the overall quality of ESP teachers to point out that the ESP program today highly requires qualified ESP teachers with multi-disciplinary subject knowledge and high English proficiency. Cai Jigang (2004) concludes that it is time for college English teaching to gradually shift to ESP. Tang Xiaoye (2007) considers that the syllabus should be designed on the basis of analyzing learners' needs and their general situation.

A multitude of practical studies have also been dedicated to ESP teaching in China. Issues range from need analysis (Chen Zhaojun & Zhuang Fuxing, 2011), teaching materials (Zhang Ai'rong, 2005) and teaching methods (Xiong weiwei, 2008). All these studies produce inspiring results. However, compared with the overseas systematic studies, the studies conducted at home have been still immature and not fairly flourishing. ESP has not developed fully into a particular system.

### **3. Research Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Questions**

Business English, as one prominent subdivision of ESP, has been offered in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies consecutively for 13 years since 2005. It is made obligatory for non-English major students who come from School of Business, School of Finance and School of International Trade in their second year.

It is true that teachers who teach Business English course have mostly been aware of the need to comply with the current teaching requirement by treating students as the core of the classroom, implementing certain class activities by inviting group discussions or individual reports. Nevertheless, some personal talks or private feedback from students reveal that they harbor some under-table dissatisfaction with the traditional teaching mode in their ESP classroom. That is, there has been too much monologue by teachers who simply control the classroom through word explanation and text reading & translating. As a consequence, they gradually lose interest and feel unfulfilled at the end of a semester.

Based on this observance of students' feedback, the author, with six-year working experience of implementing the Scaffolding Instruction in her own Business English teaching, makes an attempt to testify how effective and functional it can be for using Scaffolding Instruction mode in ESP teaching. It is hoped that, this empirical study, by collecting large data and making multi-perspective analysis, may provide some useful pedagogical implications to current ESP teaching.

There are three research questions to explore for the present study:

- 1) How do students perceive teachers' use of Scaffolding Instruction in their Business English teaching?

2) Will the Scaffolding Instruction help a lot to boost students' interests, confidence and motivation to learn Business English?

3) Is Scaffolding Instruction productive in learning outcomes?

### **3.2 Research Subjects**

An empirical teaching experiment was conducted in 2016 in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies (GDUFS). The study had two parallel classes of second-year non-English major students randomly chosen as subjects. They took the English proficiency exam and accordingly were divided into the same B-level English class the first week when they entered university. They had similar majors which were connected with business and management. Up till the research, they have learned EGP (English for General Purposes) for one year and the majority of 90% students have passed the national CET4 (College English Test). Moreover, they have taken some basic business-subject courses as freshmen. These two indicate that they are able to express themselves in the English-speaking context and that they have the initial business knowledge. However, as for the Business English course, none of them has reported to have taken this course before.

The total number of students in these two classes is 103, with one class having 52 and the other class having 51. They do not show other distinct discrepancies. Accordingly, they are designed as the Experimental Class (EC) and the Control Class (CC). They both have the researcher of this study as their Business English teacher. And also, they use the same textbook and both have two class periods in one week, with each period running for consecutively 80 minutes.

In accordance with the experiment design, the EC was taught with Scaffolding Instruction approach while the CC was taught by the traditional mode, by which teachers did the explanation and translation, and there were fewer classroom activities.

### **3.3 Data Collection and Analysis**

Instruments for this research involved random face-to-face interviews, questionnaires and two tests.

Firstly, before the experiment, one third of students in the EC class were randomly chosen to be interviewed by the researcher so as to obtain more information regarding interviewees' present English level, learning purpose, learning attitude, course expectation and learning motives. Likewise, after the experiment, there was a second interview for the same



interviewees in the EC class, with questions designed to know whether there has been a change in the subjects' perception of the course, as well as in the subjects' interest, confidence and motivation. For both these interviews, there was recording and note-taking on the site, which was then transcribed and encoded.

Secondly, two questionnaires (Questionnaire I and Questionnaire II) were distributed to a total of 103 students in both the EC and CC class before and after the experiment respectively. Each questionnaire consists of ten questions.

Table 1 and Tables 2 provide the type of questions included as follows:

**Table 1 Question Types in Questionnaire (I)**

Which question(s)	Types
Question 1,2	Interest of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 3,5,8	Motivation of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 4,6	Confidence of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 9	Problem in mechanical engineering English learning
Question 10	Teaching method they expected

**Table 2 Question Types in Questionnaire (II)**

Which question(s)	Types
Question 2,4	Interest of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 3,6,8	Motivation of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 5,7	Confidence of mechanical engineering English learning
Question 1,10	views on scaffolding instruction

Thirdly, to ensure the parallel and homogeneous nature of the GC and the EC before the experiment, the author conducted a pre-test, the paper of which was made as easy as possible, mainly covering professional word match and sentence translation. The results of this test were collected to verify there was no significant difference between the two classes. Likewise, after the experiment, students were required to attend the post-test and papers were messed up to avoid the possible bias. Their scores were recorded by the teacher for further

analysis to find out the significant differences between the two classes. To make analysis more accurate, the SPSS 18.0 software is applied to help assess the collected data.

All in all, both quantitative and qualitative studies were made for this research. All the data analysis functions to verify how effective it might be to use Scaffolding Instruction in ESP teaching.

## **4. Results and Discussions**

### **4.1 Results**

#### **1) Result of the interviews**

Students from the EC class were randomly chosen to take the interview by the researcher out of the classroom. Before the experiment, all the students were found to show their concern about taking Business English course, as evidenced by the great frequency of words like “fear”, “worry” and “difficult” in their answer. However, when it comes to the course expectation, all the interviewees provided positive answers by thinking that the business English course is directly related to their future work and they are, therefore, motivated to learn. After the experiment, 12 out of 15 interviewees expressed their likes for the new teaching approach and they mostly used words “interesting”, “satisfied” and “free” to express their feelings. Meanwhile, ten students mentioned that they felt more attracted about the Business English teaching ever since this new mode was introduced in this semester. 8 out of 12 students showed their confidence in learning this course. And a number of 4 students revealed that despite some difficulty, they were still fairly keen to invest time in accomplishing this course.

Overall, the analysis of the interview results showed that the majority of students in the EC class pretty like the interaction between teachers and students or between peers. They were happy with their academic achievements this semester.

#### **2) Results of the questionnaires**

Questionnaire I was conducted before the experiment in both EC and CC class.

Table 3 below provides the analysis of it.

Table 3 Survey on Questionnaire I

	degrees Class\	Strong (%)	Less strong (%)	Moderate (%)	Less weak (%)	Weak (%)	Total (%)
Learning interest	CC	17.8	28.9	26.8	14.2	12.3	100
	EC	18.2	30.4	22.8	15.1	13.5	100
Learning motivation	CC	25.2	30.8	26.3	12.6	5.1	100
	EC	26.5	31.4	24.9	14.1	3.1	100
Learning confidence	CC	18.8	24.9	20	23.8	12.5	100
	EC	19.4	22.7	18.9	24.6	14.4	100

As seen from the above table, in CC class the cumulative percent was 73.5% (combined by 17.8% strong+28.9% less strong+ 26.8% moderate), which contrasted with the cumulative percent of 71.4% in EC class (combined by 18.2% strong + 30.4 strong+22.8% moderate). These two numbers showed that the majority of students had the interest in learning Business English in both classes. Besides, in terms of learning motivation, over 50% of students considered that to take Business English can benefit their future work and hence they had the motivation to study hard. Thirdly, as for learning confidence, only a minority of 20% students from the EC and CC class had strong confidence to learn the course well. All in all, no distinct discrepancies could be found between the EC and CC class when it comes to the learning interest, learning motivation and learning confidence.

Table 4 below provides the analysis of Questionnaire II after the experiment.

Table 4 Survey on Questionnaire II

	degrees Class\	Strong (%)	Less strong (%)	Moderate (%)	Less weak (%)	Weak (%)	Total (%)
Learning interest	CC	18.1	29.7	27.1	12.2	12.9	100
	EC	25.8	33.1	27.8	8.1	5.2	100
Learning motivation	CC	26.7	31.3	27.2	8.3	6.5	100
	EC	29.2	36.6	25.9	5.6	2.7	100
Learning confidence	CC	20.4	26.2	22	20.9	10.5	100
	EC	29.5	27.8	24.3	15.3	3.1	100

In Questionnaire II, firstly, in terms of learning interest, the cumulative percent was 86.7% in EC class (combined by 25.8% strong + 33.1 strong+27.8% moderate). It formed a strong contrast with the cumulative percent of 71.4% before the experiment. Accordingly, it can be found that students' interest has been greatly aroused due to the Scaffolding Instruction. On the other hand, in CC class, the cumulative percent was 74.9% (combined by 18.1% strong+29.7% less strong+ 27.1% moderate), just a slight increase of 1.4% when compared with the corresponding 73.5% before the experiment. This reveals the slow progress under the traditional teaching mode. Similarly, in Table 4, the percent of positive responses in learning motivation and learning confidence in EC class also rises notably when compared with the figure before the experiment and when compared with that in CC class.

All in all, seen from the above two tables, the majority of students in the EC class showed their preference towards the Scaffolding Instruction instead of the traditional teaching mode.

### 3) Results of the test

Table 5 and Table 6 show the analysis of students' test scores in both EC and CC before and after the experiment in terms of Group Statistics.

Table 5 Group Statistics for the pre-test

		groups	Number	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	score	CC	62	44.6613	8.28576	1.05229
		EC	63	45.8095	8.54562	1.07665

Table 6 Group Statistics for the post-test

		groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	score	CC	62	46.4355	6.48737	.82390
		EC	63	56.7143	5.65808	.71285

For the pre-test, the Mean and Std. Deviation of score in the CC was  $44.66 \pm 8.29$  , and that of EC was  $45.81 \pm 8.55$ . Between two classes, there was a mere gap of 1.15. However, for the post-test, the Mean and Std. Deviation of score in the CC was  $46.43 \pm 6.49$  , and that of EC was  $56.71 \pm 5.69$ . The gap of 9.28 between the two classes, at this stage , is much larger than 1.15 for the pre-test before the experiment. This indicates that due to the adoption of the Scaffolding Instruction, students in EC class have taken a more effective learning, consequently that is why they accomplish a more distinct learning outcome in Business English.

## 4.2 Discussions

### 1) Students' perception of Scaffolding Instruction

As can be seen from the interview and questionnaire, most students show that they like the new teaching mode of Scaffolding Instruction. They take great delight in having group work by collaborating with their peers. And also, they feel that in the process of independent exploration, they are pushed by the teacher to discover considerably more abundant knowledge than what they expect. One thing to notify is that, for Scaffolding Instruction, the teacher will encourage students to construct the knowledge based on their own interest and ability. This

freedom and flexibility will inspire them to explore and go through the ZPD for higher level of learning. Each learning step is highly achievable. Therefore, it can be found that in the interview and questionnaire most students hope that Scaffolding Instruction will continue in the Business English teaching classroom. As for the small number of students during the interview who comment that scaffolding brings more tasks to them and they have difficulty adapting to it, teachers are advised to take a step-by-step procedure to conduct scaffolding, making the students gradually change their old way of receiving knowledge. In summary, during the whole process of the experiment, students show a quite positive perception of Scaffolding Instruction for Business English teaching.

## **2) Effects on students' interest, confidence and motivation**

In the experiment, there has been a great change in how students act in class. Before, students remain silent listeners for most of time in class and show a fear of participating in class activities. Later, with the adoption of the Scaffolding Instruction in the classroom, students are found to be quite active. They discuss their viewpoints with their peers in their own favorite way, which greatly stimulate their interest and their confidence has also been boosted in this relaxing and harmonious group interaction with their peers. Consequently, they develop a stronger sense of achievement after they accomplish each decomposed task and construct their new knowledge. Such achievements will surely help further define their future goals and motivate them to work harder in their Business English learning.

All in all, as can be seen from the interview and the questionnaire, under the new teaching mode of Scaffolding Instruction, students' interest, motivation and confidence all witness an eminent growth.

## **3) Effects on students' learning outcome**

Based on the analysis of the two test results, we can find that students learning outcome proves to be more satisfactory with the Scaffolding Instruction.

For the scaffolding, teachers mainly serve as the helper, consultant and guide. With knowledge of students' ZPD, teachers provide timely assistance to help students build up links between their previous knowledge and current knowledge. What's more, the context teachers create and the relaxing learning environment teachers set up remove students' learning anxiety and make students more confidently join in the collaborative learning activities, which contribute more effectively to students' new knowledge and skill construction.

## 5. Conclusion

Compared with the traditional teaching mode, Scaffolding Instruction helps to arouse students' interest and build up their confidence and motivation. After the experiment, the majority of students in EC express their feeling that they are now interested in Business English and will not regard it boring. Moreover, they spot their achievement in each learning task, accordingly they also become more confident and motivated to practice what they have learnt in group collaboration tasks. As a consequence, these basilica factors help improve students' learning outcomes more effectively, as can be seen from the comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores in the experiment. This, undoubtedly, gives rise to students' positive perception of Scaffolding Instruction adopted in their Business English learning classroom.

Despite the limitations of small and narrow sampling with this research, it is hoped that the study can help to gain insights to testify how effective it can be to use Scaffolding Instruction in Business English classroom, thus, providing some useful pedagogical implications for conducting Better ESP teaching in China.

## References

- Al-Mumaidi, M. (2009). English for specific purposes: Review of literature. Retrieved from <http://faculty.ksu.edu.sa/alhumaidi/Publications/English%20for%20Specific%20Purposes%20Review%20of%20Literature.pdf>
- Basturkmen, H. (2010) *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*. Palgrave Macmillan
- Basturkmen, H. (2006). Ideas and options in English for specific purposes. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bransford, J., Brown, A.& Cocking, R. (2000). *How people learn: brain, mind, experience and school*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2001) .Teaching by Principles: *An interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
- Cai, J. G. (2004). ESP and the Development & Direction of China's College English Teaching. *Foreign Language World*. 1(3): 6-13.
- Chen, C. M. (2008). The difficulty of university English courses and English for specific purposes: From the view of policy and administration. *English Career*, 28, 12-16.

Spowart.

- Chen, Y. H. (2007). The future of English in the globalized era. *English Career*, 27, 20-27.
- Cianflone, E., & Coppolino, R. (2009). English for specific purposes and content teacher collaboration: Report on a pilot project. *English for Specific Purposes*, 3(24), 1-18.
- Dawson, M., Neal, J. A., & Madera, J. M. (2011). Preparing hospitality and tourism students to lead a diverse workforce. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 11(2), 195-210. doi:10.1080/15313220.2011.575025
- Dudley-Evans, T., & John, M. J. S. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ersoy, E. (2010). Employability skills for the hotel sector in TRNC: comparative study of management expectations and student perceptions. Master, Eastern Mediterranean University.
- Gimenez, J. (2014). Multi-communication and the business English class: Research meets pedagogy. *English for Specific Purposes*, 35(0), 1-16.
- Herber, H. & Herber, J. (1993). *Teaching in Content Areas with Reading, Writing, and Reasoning*. Allyn & Bacon: Needham Heights, M.A.
- He, K. K. (1998). The Teaching Pattern, Method and Design of Constructivism. *Journal of Beijing Normal University*.
- Hutchinson T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for Specific Purpose: A learning-centered approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Kuppan, A. (2008). An evaluation of an English course for hospitality management in a tertiary institution. Masters, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur. Retrieved from <http://dspace.fsktm.um.edu.my/handle/1812/411>
- Lam, P. W. Y., Cheng, W., & Kong, K. C. C. (2014). Learning English through workplace communication: An evaluation of existing resources in Hong Kong. *English for Specific* 124
- McKenzie, J. (2000). *Scaffolding for Success*. Retrieved October 12, 2013, from <http://fno.org/dec99/scaffold.html>
- Oxford English Dictionary. (1998). New York: Oxford University Press
- Piaget, J. (1972). *The psychology of the child*. New York: Basic Book
- Tsou, W. L. (2008). Advancing university's fundamental education: English for Specific purposes (ESP) program at National Cheng Kung University. *English Career*, 28, 40-44.



- Van de Pol, J., Volman, M., & Beishuizen, J. (2010). Scaffolding in teacher-student interaction: a decade of research. *Educational Psychology Review*, 22, 271-296.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1962). *Thought and Language* (Hanfmann, E.&Vakar, G &Trans.).Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S.(1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Harward University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 144-188). Armonk, NY: Sharpe.
- Wang, H. S. (2005). Effective Interaction between Teaching and Learning: an analysis of Scaffolding Instruction. *Journal of Fujian Normal University*.(6):140-143
- Webster, R., & Blatchford, P. (2013). The educational experiences of pupils with a Statement for special educational needs in mainstream primary schools: results from a systematic observation study. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 28, 463-479.
- Webster, R., Blatchford, P., Bassett, P., Brown, P., Martin, C., & Russell, A. (2011). The wider pedagogical role of teaching assistants. *School Leadership and Management*, 31, 3-20.
- Webster, R., Blatchford, P., & Russell, A. (2012). Challenging and changing how schools use teaching assistants: Findings from the Effective Deployment of Teaching Assistants project. *School Leadership & Management*, 33, 78-96.
- Wood, D. J. ,Bruner, J. S ., &Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychiatry and Psychology*. 17(2), 89-100.
- Yang, W. (2012). Analysing and teaching keywords in hotel brochure text. *LSP Journal*, 3(1), 32-50.
- Yuan, J. J., Houston, K., & Cai, L. A. (2006). Foreign language ability. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 5(1), 77-90. doi: 10.1300/J171v05n01\_05
- Zhang, Z. (2012). Business English students learning to write for international business: What do international business practitioners have to say about their texts? *English for Specific Purposes*. 32, 144–156.
- Zhang, G. R. (2004). The Application of Scaffolding Theory in the Teaching of English Writing. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press*. (9):37-39